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# Bulletin

OF THE NATIONAL ASSOCIATION  
OF SECONDARY-SCHOOL PRINCIPALS



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Administrative Practices

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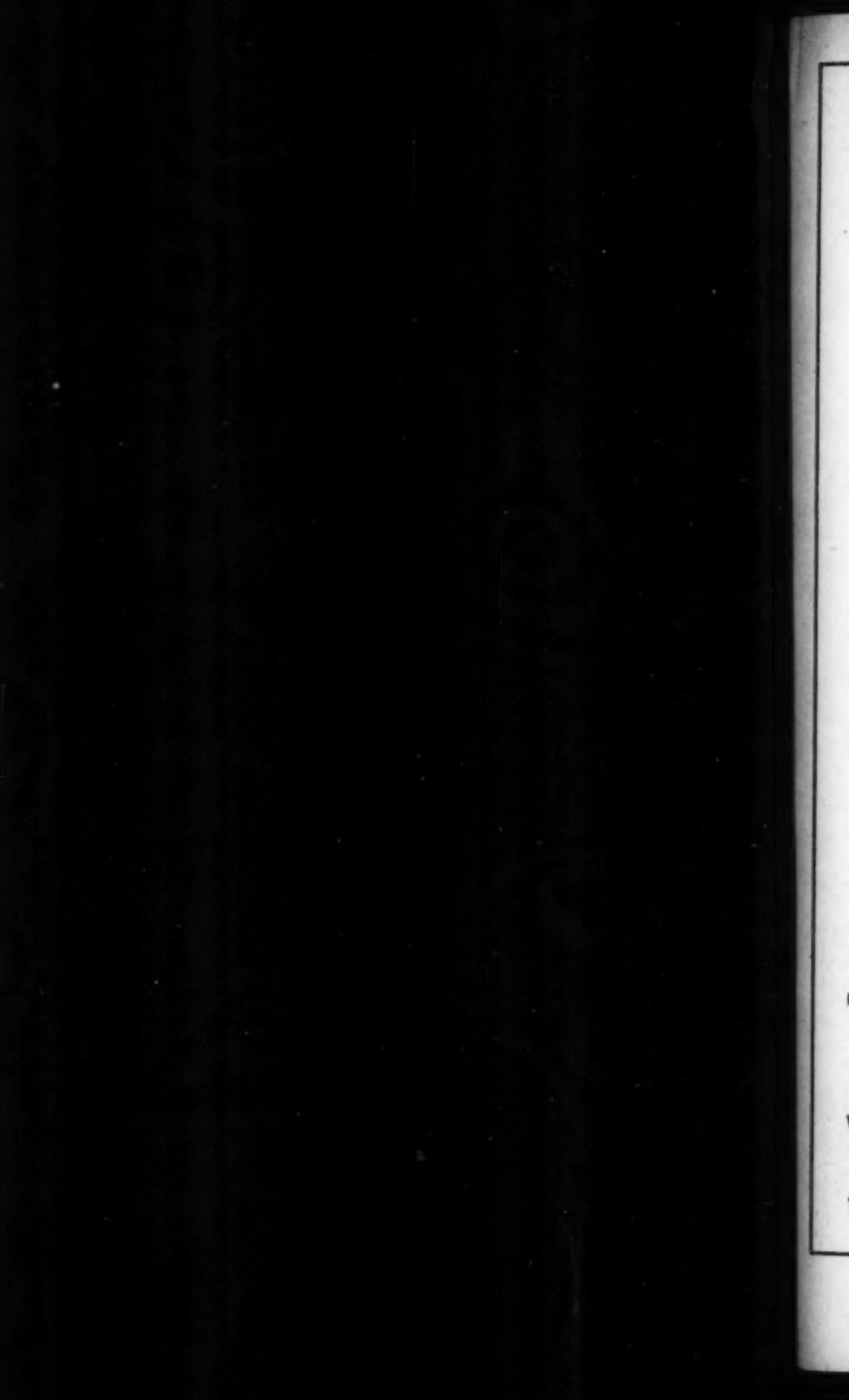
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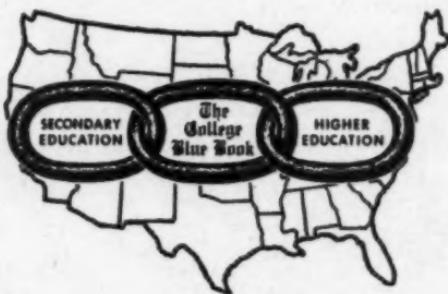
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# The Bulletin

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# The Case for and Against Merit Rating

Digest of Significant References 1951-56

ELSWORTH TOMPKINS  
and VIRGINIA ROE

MERIT rating (MR) of teachers for salary placement and increment can sometimes be compared to an international conference of Foreign Ministers. It is much easier to get agreement *in principle* than to get agreement on *specific decisions of procedure*. Few people oppose the idea behind teacher rating, yet few can agree on how it should be accomplished.

It appears that interest in MR is growing, if the number of periodical references is a criterion. For that reason, we think a careful review of the literature on the topic is desirable for the years 1951-56.

A rather comprehensive account of MR status and practice appeared in the National Association of Secondary-School Principals' BULLETIN for May 1951.<sup>1</sup> For analysis of significant professional literature on MR prior to 1951, consult THE BULLETIN article mentioned.

## RECENT TRENDS

I. The *controversial nature of MR* is as acute as ever. Teachers and administrators feel deeply about it. Most administrators and a majority of teachers are said to favor it, but it is doubtful that the *pros* out-number the *cons*. One meets frequently a statement that runs like this: The public does not mind paying teachers good salaries, but it wants competence in teachers; it wants value received for the money it spends on education. But—

- A. Few disagree on the widespread *inadequacy of teachers' salaries* when their pay is measured against the wage scales of skilled or semi-skilled workers, not to mention other professionals. Therefore, MR for salary is regarded by many, not a way to pay teachers more; yet
- B. Everybody agrees on the *need for competent teachers* and several studies have been fairly successful in defining competence. In fact, the most significant studies and conferences within the past five years have been concerned with achieving competence without reference to MR.<sup>2</sup>

<sup>1</sup>Tompkins, Ellsworth, and Armstrong, W. Earl. *Teacher Rating: Persistent Dilemma*, p. 25-81.

<sup>2</sup>See listed publications of National Commission on Teacher Education and Professional Standards.

Ellsworth Tompkins is Assistant Secretary for Administrative Services and Virginia Roe is a staff member, both of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals, Washington, D. C.

II. The amount of *useful* research on MR is slight. In fact, little more is known now than thirty years ago. That is because much research on teacher effectiveness and MR has been conducted in a theoretical vacuum, in which *ad hoc* solutions to immediate problems are emphasized. The testing of fundamental hypotheses has been neglected; *e.g.*, the relationship between MR and teacher's classroom behavior. Determining the validity of MR procedures is needed to counteract the controversy over the advantages of rating teachers for salary. A leading article in an educational journal recently claimed, "We know that a merit plan for teachers can work." So far as research goes, no objective support for such a statement exists. Until we have more substantial evidence, he who makes a strong claim for or against MR is expressing an opinion.

III. Increasingly, administrators and teachers are accepting these guiding principles for MR—

- A. MR is something done *with* teachers, not to them. Formulation of MR policy and MR practice is the work of many staff members.
- B. Teacher competence is gauged in terms of relationships with, and effect on, pupils, rather than on arbitrary standards of individual excellence.
- C. No single fixed pattern of behaviors characterizes teacher effectiveness.
- D. The only educationally defensible role of MR is to help improve the competence of teachers.
- E. No agreement exists on any single method of rating teachers.

IV. Increasingly, educational personnel tend to support these views—

- A. MR appears to be a greater problem in large school systems (200,000 and over) where a certain degree of impersonalness characterizes relationships between administrators and teachers; but this condition exists in varying degrees according to the success of the administrator in achieving a "good human relations" environment; MR appears to be less of a problem for smaller school districts where frequent face-to-face communication between administrators and teachers is the rule.
- B. Where teachers' salaries are exceptionally high (both in terms of buying power and relation to earnings of other persons of similar standing in the community), some form of MR is often acceptable to the teaching staff; but where salaries are not exceptionally high, it is more likely that MR will be unpopular with many teachers.
- C. Normative research and fact-finding on MR procedures in other cities are of questionable value to a particular school system. Each system can best develop its own approach to MR in consonance with expressed viewpoints of school-system personnel and citizens and in terms of local conditions.

- D. MR criteria and rating scale are subjective, sufficiently flexible, and include broadly conceived items. The actual rating itself represents a composite rather than a total score or mark.
- E. Self-rating by teachers is an important element in MR; a teacher is provided the right to appeal a rating which he considers unfair.

#### SELECTION AND ANNOTATION OF REFERENCES

References that have little significance to a serious discussion of the topic are omitted. Most references are given detailed annotations so that a reader may easily find out salient features of listed items.

#### ANNOTATED REFERENCES TO MERIT RATING AND TEACHING COMPETENCE

Ackerman, Walter I. "Teacher Competence and Pupil Change." *Harvard Educational Review*. 24:273-89. Fall 1954.

A comprehensive review of the literature concerned with teacher competence based on the criterion of "measured pupil change." Conclusion: Direct observation and a recording of the actual behavior of the teacher in the classroom have been a neglected phase of research in the area of teacher competency. Not primarily about MR, but has fundamental impact for MR.

\* \* \* \* \*

Barr, Arvil S. "Measurement of Teacher Characteristics and Prediction of Teaching Efficiency." *Review of Educational Research*. 22:169-74. June 1952. Bibliography.

A three-year analysis of 39 research studies which show:

1. No satisfactory plan can be used by personnel offices to make judgments on teacher effectiveness, it appears.
2. Little has been done in evaluating the non-classroom responsibilities of the teacher.
3. Concern chiefly has been for *general merit* of teachers, though we expect teachers to have special or differentiated abilities.
4. Generally, teaching effectiveness has been treated as something apart from the situations giving rise to it. What about the "situational determinants" of effective teaching?
5. Much research seems to proceed as if qualities of good teaching resided *entirely* in the teacher and not in relationships with others.

Burke, Arvid J. *Recognition of Merit in Teacher Salary Policy*. In "Competent Teachers for America's Schools." National Commission on Teacher Education and Professional Standards. pp. 19-23. Albany Conference, June 23-26, 1954. National Education Association, Washington 6, D. C.

The principle of merit in paying teachers' salaries is sound. The employment, retention, and advancement of teachers should be based on merit-teaching effectiveness. Preparation and experience by themselves

are not a guarantee of ability to perform as teachers. But MR doesn't mean that salary increases based on experience can be abolished.

1. Salaries of teachers are too low now.
2. General economic status of teachers is not attractive.
3. Most of the demands for MR arise from failure to assure proper status in paying teachers.
4. True tests of merit are (a) over-all effectiveness of the entire teaching staff, (b) the separation of the obviously incompetent. Paying unsatisfactory teachers less than satisfactory teachers is not recognition of merit but community failure.
5. The penalizing or rewarding of individual teachers may not increase efficiency of entire staff.

The New York State (1947 and 1951) MR law has quite generally failed because it did not gain the co-operation of teachers, and also because they lacked confidence in their administrators. Suggestions for MR soundly conceived:

1. Higher standards merit selection, on-the-job evaluation, and higher salaries for administrators.
2. High standards for teacher certification and employment and higher teacher salaries.
3. Job classification in three categories: Probationary teacher, professional teacher, master teacher, with adequately high pay; so teachers don't have to wait half a lifetime for full share of annual increments.

(See also other publications of the National Commission on Teacher Education and Professional Standards: "Factors in Teaching Competence, 1954", "Defining Teacher Competences, 1955", and "Measures of Teacher Competences, 1953.")

\* \* \* \* \*

Department of Classroom Teachers, NEA. *Report of Committee on Merit Rating*. November 26-27, 1954. 11 pp.

MR lies in the field of human relations. Measuring techniques in industry do not apply to education. Intangibles in teaching performance resist accurate measurement. New York State in 1947 tried MR by law, but it failed largely. MR simply is too complicated and destructive of good human relations.

*Specific suggestions for alternates to MR:*

1. Selective recruitment program, beginning with junior high school. (Future Teachers of America).
2. Probationary period—Getting a good start, help P. T. solve their problems; role of good supervision.
3. Period of active service—Economic security, an opportunity to teach, freedom to teach, self-directed improvement.
4. Retirement—Ample provision for.

**Conclusions:**

1. MR limits teacher growth.
2. No system that exists fairly measures human growth.
3. Where teaching conditions are right, MR is superfluous.

\* \* \* \* \*

Department of Classroom Teachers and Research Division, NEA. *Teacher Rating*. Discussion pamphlet No. 10, revised July 1954. 24 pp. 25c.

Administrators have to make decisions about the employment, salary, promotion, transfer, reassignment, and retirement of teachers. Teacher rating can help them make decisions.

In 1950-51 the *NEA Research Bulletin* said that classroom teachers were rated regularly in 44% of reporting systems. Larger cities (500,000 or more) use MR more than smaller cities. Figures show MR increased slightly from 1940-41 to 1950-51, but high point was in 1930-31.

Systematic evaluation of teaching makes it probable that the teacher and administrator will be benefited, the former from caprice of a rater, the latter by fair decisions based on good evidence. An orderly, formal, recorded rating requires an official to have direct knowledge of a teacher's work.

Ratings should be administered so they minimize tension and embarrassment between rater and teacher. A rating should encourage improvement, not emphasize shortcomings.

Finding an adequate basis for rating is not easy. Pupil progress, methods of teaching, personality, mental attributes, contributions to school and community, growth and development. All of these bases are extremely difficult to appraise.

Types of R in 104 cities show five headings: (1) check scale, (2) comment report, (3) characterization report, (4) descriptive report, and (5) ranking report. Number of types suggests little agreement on what constitutes good teaching. None can claim to be valid measures of teaching success, because proof is lacking. Also, ratings vary widely according to who does the rating.

Who does the rating—superintendents, principals, supervisors? Each has limitations. Frequency of ratings—semester to every two or three years. Probationary teacher needs appraisal to help him adjust. Social distance between teacher and principal affects adversely one of these two: teamwork or individual rating.

Are teachers informed of their rating? They *should* be. Rating system should be easy and inexpensive to administer. Pupil ratings of teachers are helpful guides. Best kind of rating is teacher self-evaluation. Teachers should have a part in formulating and applying a rating plan.

Alternative to rating—cumulative personnel record.

Teachers are, in principle, not generally opposed to rating (NEA figures). They favor ratings simply using "s" or "u" (satisfactory or un-

satisfactory). But no teachers seemed to be real happy about rating. Many of them know why: Ratings do not accomplish their purpose.

\* \* \* \*

Cook, William A. "Merit Rating and Salary Increase." *American School Board Journal*. 124:33-4. June 1952.

These are comments of a superintendent who believes in the principles of MR and, yet, isn't hesitant to express the unfavorable conditions of MR. He believes that the teachers and administrators should work together co-operatively in determining criteria for rating. And he rates teachers in five groups: (1) Unsatisfactory—should be dismissed, (2) Passable—continues without salary increment, (3) Average—regular increment, (4) Good—increased increment, and (5) Excellent—increased increment.

\* \* \* \*

Fosdick, Harry A. "Merit Rating—How and by Whom?" *Nation's Schools*. January 1956. pp. 58-62.

MR without teacher participation will probably fail; with teacher participation, it will probably succeed; yet, the ultimate instrument may be the same. The manner of approaching MR is more important than the scale itself.

Characteristics of California plans for MR tend to incorporate these features:

1. Developed co-operatively by teacher association representatives, administrators, and often board members.
2. Evaluation of teacher's services is co-operative.
3. Professional merit is evaluated as adequate progress toward goals of proficiency.
4. The teacher signs the appraisal form after discussion between him and administrator.
5. Opportunity for teacher to offer additional evidence in his own behalf or appeal his rating.
6. Permanent teachers are evaluated once, probationary teachers twice yearly.
7. Board policy prevents dismissal of any employee unless he has had an opportunity to correct weaknesses made known to him.

Cites Cincinnati "Evaluation of Teaching Performance" in full.

\* \* \* \*

Gage, N. L., and Orleans, Jacob S. "Guiding Principles in the Study of Teacher Effectiveness." *Journal of Teacher Education*. 3:294-8. December 1952.

A statement of progress by the AERA Research Committee on criteria of teacher effectiveness.

Since 1900 a great deal of research on teacher effectiveness has been done, but the outcome of that work is not encouraging. It has not grasped

the magnitude of the task. The Committee offers these guiding principles for research on teacher effectiveness:

1. A broad field of research in which studies on many aspects and many details are needed.
2. Teacher effectiveness is ultimately to be defined in terms of the effects a teacher produces on pupils, school operations, and community.
3. Teacher effectiveness does not consist of any single, fixed pattern of behaviors.
4. Teacher effectiveness involves the determination of the relationships between teacher behavior and the changes of behavior of pupils, school operation, and community interaction. Further, this means a particularization of behaviors on both sides, and also less reliance on correlation techniques used in one-shot previous studies.
5. Criteria of teacher effectiveness are found to lie not on a single plane, but on various levels with respect to ultimateness; e.g., perhaps most basic ultimate criteria are values held by our society or by a particular community.

\* \* \* \* \*

Gragg, W. L. "Ithaca's Revised Teacher Rating Plan." *American School Board Journal*. 125:41-2. October 1952.

This article describes the New York State Education Laws of 1947 and 1951 regarding teacher rating. Ithaca's revised law eliminated numerical rating, and called for final evaluation to be submitted solely by the principal. In elementary schools, the supervising principal observes each teacher individually as often as needed. Secondary schools have a similar procedure with fewer visits by the principal and more by supervisor or director. The consultant writes an annual review of each teacher, based on his visits and conferences with them, for the principal to use in the final evaluation. Descriptions of the observation report and the evaluation form are contained in this article.

*Underlying principles:*

An excellent rating in four of five major categories qualifies a teacher for an excellent rating for total year's services. The Ithaca plan is deliberately subjective and *not objective*. In fact, they have abandoned the belief of "Unless you can measure it, it doesn't exist." Their belief is that teaching is a highly complex art.

\* \* \* \* \*

Greenwald, Catherine I. "One City's Disaster in Merit Rating." *American Teacher*, 22 No. 5. May 1956. p. 12.

Describes experience of Gary (Indiana) public schools with MR from 1920 on. Teachers once were graded A, B, C, D, by principals and supervisors of special subjects. Maximums decreased if ratings fell. Though principals tried to be fair, teacher unrest grew. Reasons: MR cannot

be fairly administered; MR is ruinous to morale; to eliminate personalities and favoritism is impossible; teachers cannot agree to a fair marking system; a decent salary should be paid without artificial barriers.

The MR scheme in Gary continued for 10-12 years and resulted in concerted action by teachers for the single-salary schedule now in force.

\* \* \* \* \*

Grim, Paul R., and Hoyt, Cyril J. "Appraisal of Teaching Competency." *Educational Research Bulletin*. Ohio State University, 31:85-91. April 16, 1952.

Teaching competency is intimately related to the goals of teaching. To define competency presupposes a clarification of goals. However, there appear to be certain definable dimensions which are common to many, if not all, teaching situations. These dimensions are related to the effective interpersonal relations between teacher and learner.

A discussion on the use of the Student Reaction Inventory follows; some 200 items of remarks by students on classroom experiences are divided into seven categories; and the Teacher Characteristic List of 70 items based on the Student Inventory. Both can be used in evaluation of teaching competency during student teaching.

\* \* \* \* \*

Grotke, Earl Martin. "A Study of Professional Distances Between the Raters of Teachers and Teachers Rated." *Journal of Experimental Education*. 24:1-41. September 1955. Also in *Phi Delta Kappa*. 34:127-30. January 1953.

Social distance is defined sociologically as the frequency and divergency between points of view held by professional workers on what are the characteristics of a good teacher. Study included seventeen school faculties in one community and thirteen in another. In each case, the principal served as rater. He selected a teacher he thought good, one average, one poor—named *A*, *B*, and *C* teachers.

The hypothesis is that there is less social or professional distance between the principal and the *A* teacher than between the principal and the *B* or the *C* teacher. In other words, *A* teachers tend to agree more with their rater.

The findings of the study do not entirely support the hypothesis that greater social and professional distance between rater and rated has a positive correlation with lower ratings.

\* \* \* \* \*

Guba, E. G., and Getzels, J. W. "Personality and Teacher Effectiveness in Theoretical Research." *Journal of Educational Psychology*. 46: 330-44. October 1955.

Despite the great amount of research on teacher effectiveness, relatively little more is known now than was known in 1900. Many studies since then have not produced important findings. Still others have little practical significance because they involve unwieldy variables.

The reason for this is that much past research has been conducted in a theoretical vacuum, seeking *ad hoc* solutions to immediate practical problems. Only by predicting hypotheses on sound theory can useful findings be arrived at.

Theory has advantages over normative research in many ways. One is that theory provides a basis for interpreting observational data. The authors used a theoretical approach in a broad study of teacher effectiveness in a military setting at Maxwell Air Force Base, where a sample of 234 officer-instructors were rated by their colleagues on lecturing, discussion leading, and instruction. Several value studies and inventories were used to obtain the data. The tests are described in detail.

The findings are extensive and include hypotheses supported and rejected. The main outcome was that normative research (fact-finding) is much less significant than theoretical research into teacher effectiveness within the limits of this study. Research conducted with theoretically selected instruments seems to have a marked advantage.

\* \* \* \* \*

Hanson, Earl H. "Better Than Rating." *Illinois Education*. November 1955. pp. 100-1.

This article was prepared from an 80-page pamphlet entitled "Better Than Rating," by the Commission on Teacher Evaluation of the ASCD, NEA. The pamphlet describes Problems and Issues of Teacher Rating, How Teachers Accomplish Best Results, Analysis of Current Teacher-Rating Practices, How Rating Affects the School Program, and A Better Way Than Rating.

The article states that MR is being advocated to raise salaries enough to attract new teachers. However, what we need is to give the public a positive approach on education, stressing the necessity of *good* schools. Better ways than rating are (1) acceptance of the fact that teaching is an art and the teacher an artist, (2) provision of tools needed to do a good job, (3) recognition of Dr. Thomas H. Briggs' thesis that schools are organized to be administered and are administered to instruct people, and (4) a co-operative program. Another argument for MR is that rating tied to salary is just. This isn't so because (1) no individual teacher is sole cause of teaching success, and (2) degrees of teaching success cannot be measured accurately. Dr. Willard Elsbree of Columbia University states "Merit rating as a basis for deciding teachers' salary schedules is a sham and an illusion. There is still no formula for measuring good teaching."

Merit rating does not improve instruction; instead, it creates a feeling of fear and suspicion among teachers and supervisors.

\* \* \* \* \*

Jarecke, Walter H. "Evaluating Teaching Success Through the Use of the Teaching Judgment Test." *Journal of Educational Research*. May 1952. pp. 683-94.

This study was proposed to evaluate factors contributing to teacher success by use of a Teaching Judgment Test. The conclusions are:

- (1) Teaching experience has a bearing on teaching success.
- (2) The master's examination and teaching success, measured by the Teaching Judgment Test, show a relationship between scholastic ability and teaching success.
- (3) The work attitude of a teacher as a whole person affects his or her performance.

\* \* \* \* \*

Kandel, I. J. "Events." *School and Society*. 73:315-6. May 19, 1951. The fundamental questions, "What is teaching competence?" still remains unanswered. Much still remains to be done to improve the relations between the public and its schools and to put teaching on a firm professional basis.

\* \* \* \* \*

Lacy, Susan; Miller, John L.; and Wardner, Philip. "Merit Rating: A Symposium." *Educational Leadership*. 9:17-21. October 1951.

Rating of teachers can be sure of minimum success *only* if the manner of rating is discussed and formulated by all concerned—teachers, principals, etc. Rating is something you do with (not to) people.

Teaching is an art as well as a science, and that means that evaluation is at best only the judgment of a person or persons. Informal evaluation, of course, goes on from day to day, but we're thinking of formal evaluation. Nonetheless, the public often believes in MR for teachers.

MR is often a disguise for cost control and is anti-democratic. Not only are MR systems highly subjective, but they also fail to measure that which the rater wishes to have measured.

\* \* \* \* \*

Madsen, Gibb R. *Utah Rating Study Committee*. Department of Classroom Teachers, NEA. May 5, 1954. 6 pp.

The only reason for MR is to improve the instruction of children. Principle of MR sounds good; in practice it may hurt good education. Utah should study with the utmost care any proposal for MR because any hastily conceived action is bound to fail; example, New York, North Carolina, and Salt Lake City. The history of MR (even) in the business world indicates that supervisory personnel have distinct limitations as to their ability to rate successfully their subordinates. Except in the field of piece work, the primary use of MR by business concerns is to decide which workers are best fitted for promotion. If you have MR, the meritorious teacher should receive at least \$1,000 more than the standard teacher.

\* \* \* \* \*

McCall, William A. *Measurement of Teacher Merit*. Raleigh: North Carolina State Superintendent of Public Instruction. Bulletin No. 284, April 1952. 40 pp.

An account of a research study of certain North Carolina schools supported by a grant from the state legislature at the request of the Governor. Initially, the research team agreed (1) that no one or combination of many methods in use in MR is sufficiently valid to be adopted, (2) that a research authorized by the state might help determine the validity of various proposed MR methods, (3) that the worth of each method be judged by the "proved ability" of the teacher to make desirable changes in pupils.

General plan was to measure the growth of a class by a set of criteria and to secure a single composite figure. The research was conducted in the county schools of Guilford County (N. C.) and two cities in that county, Greensboro and High Point. All findings are predicated on the teacher's proved ability to produce change in children. Tests were developed and given. Validity of MR methods disclosed:

1. Relation of amount of training to merit of teachers—*little* correlation appears.
2. Relation of experience to merit—*little* correlation.
3. Relation of principals' rating to actual merit—(is the rating by principal a criterion of teacher worth?) No, according to N. C. study—negative correlation.
4. Relation of rating by peers to merit—no correlation; in fact, a *negative correlation*.
5. Confidential self-evaluation and merit—fairly high correlation—positive.

Of all *newer* MR methods, which are valid? and have high correlations?

Pupils ratings of their teacher on the Social Behavior Scale. (Note: All other tests and scales (23 of them) show negative or very low correlation, yet some of these "tests" claim much).

The validity of other measures of MR:

1. The relation of age of teacher effectiveness—no correlation.
2. The relation of salary of teacher to teacher effectiveness—no correlation.
3. The relation of sex of teacher to teacher effectiveness—no correlation.
4. The relation of women teachers married or unmarried to teacher effectiveness—slight positive correlation for married.
5. The relation of mothers and non-mothers to teacher effectiveness—no correlation.
6. The relation of teachers in urban or rural areas to teacher effectiveness—slight positive correlation for urban.
7. The relation of race (white and negro) to teacher effectiveness—zero correlation.
8. The relation of teachers making home visits and those making no home visits to teacher effectiveness—high correlation for home visitation.

9. The relation of teachers having conversations with pupils out of school and those having none to teacher effectiveness—high correlation for the former.

#### *General Findings of the North Carolina Study*

This research failed to find any system of measuring teacher merit which it (the director, staff) was willing to recommend for adoption as a basis for paying salaries of teachers. The study *did* establish that the system of MR by official superiors, which the state was considering for adoption, is of no value.

Of far greater importance than how teachers should be paid is how we can make teachers better teachers. It is in this area that the research has made its greatest contribution, and has indicated one promising approach to a salary formula.

A substantial gain in teachers' efficiency could be secured by the simple device of having pupils give a "confidential rating" of their teachers at the end of each school year on "has good manners, keeps temper, and is kind." To these we add "is a good teacher." For this study reveals that characteristics of good teachers *can* be differentiated from those of poor teachers.

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McGennes, F. Earl, Jr. "Threat from Merit Rating." *American Teacher*. Vol. 2, No. 5. May 1956. p. 4. Editorial.

Merit rating of teachers has been tried and found unworkable. Groups pressing for MR are tax-savings groups and other people who like the idea of MR without comprehending its dangers.

But teachers do not produce a product that lends itself to measurement. They do not start with the same quality or amount of "raw material" nor the same tools or equipment. The effect of their labor with a student may not become apparent for years and then often only in such a way that the efforts of one teacher cannot be separated from the efforts of other teachers.

Where objective standards are lacking—as in quality of teaching—supervisors' judgments are subjective and vary widely. Also teaching techniques vary from teacher to teacher, and even on broader principles there is legitimate disagreement within the profession.

Who will administer MR? Generally an administrator faces the dilemma of favoritism or low morale. The good administrator wishes to build a team of effective co-operators, not to introduce divisive attitudes.

Most MR systems sooner or later come back to the *training and experience* criteria for salary placement; these are defensible.

Teachers and teacher associations have an obligation (a) to support objective measures as training and experience for salary increases; (b) to prevent a breakdown in standards for entering the profession; (c) to support removal from the profession of those who fail in their responsibilities to children.

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Megel, Carl J. "Merit Rating—the Ghost Walks Again." *The American Teacher*. March 1953. p. 2.

MR was a result of raised teacher salaries during World War I. It at first acted as an incentive for teachers to become superior. However, regardless of merit, approximately twenty-five percent of the teachers were rated superior. The depression in the 30's exposed MR in its reality and as a result the single salary schedule was developed. In 1948 AFT prevented MR from reoccurring among a new corps of teachers who had not experienced the danger in MR. A school superintendent once stated that in his opinion no administrator could honestly rate one teacher over another on a dollar and cents basis.

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Misner, Paul. "Teacher Rating Is the Responsibility of the Entire Profession." *Nation's Schools*. August 1951. pp. 23-4.

Development of salary schedules is closely related to evaluation of teaching. But if salaries are low, little justification for appraisal exists. But teachers have to be well-paid first, then they may agree to evaluation of their competencies. Better salaries for teachers will result in public demand for MR.

For five years, Glencoe schools have had MR—three levels of teaching—probationary, professional, and career teacher. Progress on salary schedules is automatic, except that records of probationary teachers are reviewed by the personnel committee as to tenure (3 years); professional (8-9 years)—salary advance is automatic except in case of palpable incompetence. Career level teachers (8 years more) are placed on that level only by a merit board whose recommendations must be ratified by the board of education.

The personnel committee consists of two teachers elected by the faculty, one board member, and two administrative officers. The merit board includes two teachers, one board member, one principal (not the teacher's school), and one personnel specialist. During the five years of operation, six of a faculty of 50 have been placed on career level. Only one person has been denied tenure by the personnel committee.

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Nicholas, Ivan C. "Salary Schedules Are Based on Effectiveness of Teaching." *Nation's Schools*. June 1956. pp. 52-6.

Merit pay for teachers in Ladue, Missouri, schools has worked effectively since 1952. Principles that underlie MR are (1) community and teachers recognize fundamental purpose of American education, (2) community (board of education) must establish a salary schedule consonant with importance of teaching job and economic well-being, (3) effective teaching must be judged in terms of basic purposes sought, and (4) the professional teaching staff should determine procedures and methods to be used in rating the effectiveness of teachers.

Range in salary at Ladue is \$3,600-10,400. Increments are \$250 each until \$5,600, then \$400. A third schedule has a minimum of \$5,400 and maximum of \$10,400 with increments of \$500.

The 2-fold purpose of evaluation, the Ladue teachers' committee decided, included (1) improvement of teaching, and (2) placement on the salary schedule.

Ladue plan incorporates these features: (1) rating by professional educators trained in educational administration and sympathetic to the philosophy of the school system, (2) building principals assume responsibility for evaluating teachers in their schools, upon recommendation of the teaching staff, (3) evaluation of teachers' work has to be continuous rather than periodic, (4) evaluation folders must be open to principal and teacher both, (5) a standing committee on teacher education.

Advantages, disadvantages, likes, and dislikes expressed by teachers show that most of them favor the Ladue plan. Some teachers have requested more frequent conferences than one a year.

Also, teachers are concerned over promiscuous talking (bragging, complaining) about salaries. They feel a more *professional* attitude toward salaries should be observed.

The main factor in the success of the Ladue plan has been the work of the evaluation committee, made up of one teacher-elected representative from each building and one representative from the administrative staff selected by the principal and superintendent of schools.

Center spread on p. 54-55 shows "Criteria for Evaluation" of Ladue MR. The author is Superintendent of Schools at Ladue.

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Opinion poll. *Nation's Schools*. May 1956. pp. 92-4.

A nation-wide sampling of superintendents reveals that most (86%) favor the principle of MR, but admit that the majority of teachers (58%) are opposed. Many administrators (57%) believe MR is not solely the responsibility of them and their boards of education. The difficulty with MR is in the practice, not the theory. The administrators fear it is as much a morale smasher as a morale builder. Quoted superintendents give individual views that generally reflect controversy.

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Orton, Don A. "A New Approach to Merit Rating." *Nation's Schools*. July 1955. pp. 70-1.

Utah study of MR by a lay-professional committee is described. Suggestion for trial periods of MR in pilot schools. Guidelines to be considered are:

1. Determination of teaching expertness is a necessary prelude to MR.
2. Co-operation and support of teachers is needed.
3. Each school sets its own standards.

4. Should be three evaluators for each appraisal.
5. No "fine" gradations of competencies should be identified.

In March 1955, Utah appropriated \$25,000 for a study of MR. The committee has heard from 73 districts that claim successful MR programs.

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NEA Research Division. *References on Teacher Rating and Evaluation*. November 1955.

A listing of 60 recent important references.

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Ryans, David G. "Notes on the Rating of Teachers." *Journal of Educational Research*. 42:695-703.

Teachers dislike being rated because:

1. They distrust the raters.
2. They distrust the ratings as unreliable.
3. They feel they lose professional prestige from performance evaluation.
4. They fear adverse ratings and, therefore, act insecurely toward them.

Two methods of making ratings more objective: Forced-Choice Performance Report and Classroom Observation Scale. Both seem to be good measures.

Suggests that highly selected and trained teams of judges be employed in a school system for the particular purpose of rating teachers.

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Seavey, Morton R. "The Effect of Salaries on Teaching." *The Education Digest*. April 1953. pp. 6-8.

The author believes that the careless misuse of the terms "merit" and "competence" creates serious problems. Furthermore, he believes that the enthusiasm for "relating salary to competence" is confusing because of (1) unwillingness to blame community and its leading administrators for present poor teacher labor market, and (2) misuse of word "competent." He lists nine accomplishments to be gained from improvement in the teacher labor market and correct interpretation of "competent." He feels that double increments are necessary to assure "topflight" service; but they are to be earned through unusual talent, or extra time on the job, as well as by requisites for regular increments, rather than by use of unmeaningful words to describe it. Double increment should also go to teachers whose services are in demand.

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Shane, Harold. "Seven Types of Teacher Appraisal." *Nation's Schools*. July 1952. p. 58-9.

A survey of 35 elementary school systems using teacher appraisal procedures. Tabulation of findings showed eight types according to priority, *viz*:

1. Verbal reports by principal to central office (most common).
2. No formal rating plan.
3. Self-appraisal form prepared by teacher.
4. Subjective appraisal by superintendent.
5. Rating scale or checklist.
6. Written reports after administrators visits to class.
7. Group evaluation made by teachers themselves (least common).

Superintendents believe a teacher rated very poor should be dismissed. They say it is difficult to judge competence but easy to judge incompetence. In the typical (of the 35) system the number of planned visits to a teacher's room was seven per year. Less than one of four systems use arbitrary rating scales.

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Staub, Fred, and Savage, William W. "Teachers' Salaries and Merit Rating." *Administrator's Notebook*. Midwest Administration Center, University of Chicago. Volume 14, No. 9. May 1956, 4 pp. Bibliography. 25c.

An analysis of the reasons for the renewed interest in rating effectiveness of public-school teachers as a basis for paying salaries according to merit. Cites the major arguments used by proponents and those used by opponents of MR. Five general comments on MR are:

1. Strong difference of opinion regarding it.
2. Tendency of teachers' organizations to oppose it.
3. Number of systems using MR is declining.
4. MR plans of various types are being used with a degree of success in some American communities.
5. The amount of research on MR is pitifully slight.

The superintendent who is ordered by his board to institute some form of MR is in a difficult spot. He might ask (1) the board to proceed slowly and study the effects of MR carefully; (2) that teachers participate in planning MR; (3) that the MR experience of other cities be reviewed closely; (4) that research and experimentation be conducted in the community; and (5) that MR will not solve personnel problems; it is not a substitute for good working conditions, decent salaries, and salutary staff relations.

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Thistle, Everett G. "Acceptability—a Factor in Teacher Evaluation." *Journal of Education*. March 1955, 137:8-10.

This report was based on a study which endeavored to determine what people agree on as being the most effective measures of evaluation.

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Trends. "Merit Rating and Public Relations." National School Public Relations Association, NEA. April 25, 1956. p. 1. Newsletter.

MR can no longer be regarded as an "inside" professional matter. Why not MR? school people have to say.

*Manhasset schools in action* newsletter says MR will have to be accepted sooner or later if salaries in education are to be comparable to those paid in business and other professions. A trial basis for MR is suggested.

MR is often confused with personnel evaluation program. State education associations are studying what is involved in merit rating.

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Wesner, H. L. "A Merit Rating of Teachers." NASSP BULLETIN. April 1954. 38:104-5.

The single salary schedule should be discarded or coupled with a MR system. The adequate rating scale should serve four basic areas: (1) vocational guidance for teachers, (2) provide stimulation for in-service improvement, (3) assist in determining promotion and dismissal, and (4) guide administrators in selection of teacher. Some common types of rating devices are yes and *no* type, comparison, score card, pupil test, and professional test. However, we must realize that rating alone cannot do the job, and it, therefore, should be considered an "aid" in teacher selection and promotion.

#### SCHOOL AND COLLEGE ENROLLMENT—1956-57

THE nation's total school and college enrollment will reach an all-time peak of 41,553,000 in 1956-57, according to reports from the U. S. Office of Education. Shortages of classrooms and qualified teachers will be somewhat reduced, although still serious. This will be the twelfth consecutive year that the total enrollment of schools, colleges, and universities has shown an increase. The 1956-57 estimated enrollment will be 1,754,300 higher than the previous peak enrollment of 39,798,700 recorded in 1955-56. Enrollment estimates show that private and public school enrollment in kindergarten through grade 8 will total 29,618,000. Last year's elementary school enrollment was 28,514,200. The increase this year is 1,103,800. High-school enrollment for 1956-57 is estimated at 8,111,600. This is a step up of 364,500 high-school students (grades 9 through 12) over the 1955-56 total enrollment of 7,747,100. Colleges and universities throughout the United States will enroll 236,000 more students during the coming academic year than they enrolled in 1955-56. This year's estimated enrollment will be 3,282,000 as compared with last year's 2,996,000.

The rise in elementary- and high-school enrollment calls for 36,800 additional classrooms to accommodate children in kindergarten through grade 8 (assuming 30 pupils to a classroom), and 14,600 more classrooms for children in grades 9 through 12 (at 25 pupils per classroom)—a total of 51,400 new classrooms.

## Secret Societies in American High Schools

VIRGINIA HAMILTON

EVERY modern American secondary school has some kind of extra-curricular program. These programs are set up for the purpose of giving young people socially approved outlets for their energies, talents, and normal desires for social activity. In some schools today there may also be found other organizations which are also established for the purpose of satisfying the social instincts of youth. These are called secret societies, or fraternities and sororities. They differ from the school-approved clubs mainly in their exclusiveness and undemocratic principles of selection (33). It has been established that America has a class structure, extra-legal but real, with opportunities and privileges going to the upper classes. It is the obligation of the public schools to combat this structure, to inculcate ideals of democratic citizenship, and to exemplify these ideals in practice (3). Yet, pledged to these objectives, many high schools still allow secret groups to flourish, despite the fact that educators, school administrators, the public in general, and the courts of law stand united against their existence. It is the purpose of this article to examine the place of the secret society in the American secondary school; why it exists; its good and evil aspects; and how it has been dealt with by school authorities.

When a child approaches adolescence, many changes occur, not only physically, but in his emotions and attitudes as well. He feels the need to break away from the role of child and to assume the status of an adult. Although he is fascinated with himself, he actually becomes less self-centered, and begins to see himself as a person within a group; that is, he sees himself in relation to other people. He begins to wonder what others think of him, especially girls. He spends hours before the mirror analysing his physical self, and any anomaly, whether real or imagined, becomes magnified horribly. He begins to think his parents know nothing, and the opinions of his friends mean everything to him. Above all, he wants to "belong" (2). He wants to feel, and needs to feel, that he has the approval of his peer group, and that they look upon him as one of themselves.

For all ages, the most forceful social drive is the drive for prestige and power connected with a social organization (10), but at no time is it so

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strong as at adolescence, when physical change makes it very necessary for the individual to have emotional security and status in the eyes of others. It is at this time that the child loses interest in adult-supervised activities such as Boy Scouts and church groups, and seeks the smaller, more homogeneous intimate group (1). If the group has an aura of mystery and glamour, and it is known that only the "best guys" belong, he will do everything in his power to become one of that group. Membership may assume an importance which seems out of all proportion to an adult, but to the adolescent, well, if he can't get in, he "might as well be dead" (2).

The effects of rejection by a peer group are varied. Some young people may attempt to join another group where there is more likelihood of being accepted, and may find satisfaction there. Some may compensate for rejection by plunging themselves into individual and sometimes lonely activities. A large number, however, will tend to withdraw into worlds of their own, unable to face the harsh realities of rejection (2). Thus withdrawn, they miss out on the important social and heterosexual activities and experiences which they need in order to become well-adjusted adults. It is up to the schools and especially the junior high schools, to see that enough varied and interesting activities are provided to meet the needs of young people, and to see to it that everyone has an equal chance of being accepted into a group where he feels that he belongs and where he may attain the status he so sorely needs.

Fraternities and sororities are the outgrowth of this natural and basic drive of young people to enhance and extend their personalities through social relations (9). They were not, however, invented by high-school youth. In practically all cases, secret societies have been introduced by teachers or other adults, or by national organizations (6). They date back as far as 1876, although their influence was little felt until about 1894, when teachers and students began to express dissatisfaction and to question the aims and practices of such organizations (5). In 1905 the National Education Association condemned secret societies in public schools as being undemocratic, snobbish, and troublemaking. In 1908 a California girl shot herself as a result of rejection by a sorority, and California passed an anti-fraternity bill which made any such organizations throughout the state illegal. Since then many schools have taken a definite stand through legislation and court decisions (10). As of 1954, twenty-five states had specific legislation prohibiting and regulating secret societies in the public schools. These states are:

Arkansas	Louisiana	Ohio
California	Maine	Oklahoma
Colorado	Michigan	Oregon
Florida	Minnesota	Pennsylvania
Idaho	Missouri	Rhode Island
Illinois	Montana	Texas
Indiana	Nebraska	Vermont
Iowa	New Jersey	Washington
Kansas		

Massachusetts controls secret societies under more inclusive regulation, and Maryland under a bylaw enacted by the state board of education. Most of the other states have provisions whereby the local school boards have the power to regulate and prohibit secret societies. Their decisions, when they were contested in court, have been upheld in almost every instance (11).

Why then, in the face of such overwhelming legal restriction, do high school fraternities and sororities continue to exist and even flourish in some areas? Oftentimes the reason is that the regular school program of activities is inadequate, and the students have been forced to take matters into their own hands. Parents fail to do their part in many cases, because they may crave the social honor, good contacts, and prestige which they feel may come to them through their children. Even if they deplore the practices of the secret societies, they may not take a stand for fear of embarrassing their children or themselves. The social board of education sometimes fails to give the necessary support to any movement to rid the school of them. Teachers and school administrators may be remiss in their duty and simply close their eyes to any unpleasant situations. College fraternities and sororities sometimes actively encourage high-school groups in order to screen possible future members (22). Finally, students themselves become so emotionally involved with these groups that they will do anything in their power to prevent regulation.

Why are fraternities and sororities so appealing to the average teenager? The biggest reason is that they signify the taking on of maturity in an alluring mystery and glamour. Their exclusiveness gives a sense of importance and a feeling of being envied. Closed meetings give secrecy. Pins, sweaters, and other insignia prove publicly that one is accepted by a select group. Social affairs give social experience and recognition. Initiations give adventure and fun (33). The practices are an imitation of college life and what the members assume to be adult behavior (16).

There are many arguments in favor of secret societies. Most of them have charters which state that their purposes are worthy, and their ideals high. They are pledged to further the interests of the school; to encourage members to take an active part in school activities; to develop good scholarship, leadership, organizational ability, and courtesy; and to respect authority (4). It is very true that such groups give many opportunities for heterosexual social activities. They may control the desire of members to drop out of school. They undoubtedly give good experience in group planning and parliamentary procedure. And last, but not least to the adult-imitating adolescent, they are no more undemocratic than are many organizations to which adults belong (18).

In defense of secret societies, Dr. William O. Hulsey, of the Interfraternity Congress of Secondary and Non-Academic Fraternities, states that the purpose of this national organization, established in 1947, is to improve the standards of secret societies in the secondary schools, and to increase their co-operation with school authorities and activities. He

further states that the local organizations ought to be banned, as they are the ones who cause difficulty with communities and schools. The groups chartered by the Interfraternity Congress must live up to the national code of ethics (19).

But whether or not a secret society is national or local has little to do with the fact that most Greek-letter societies practice selectivity based on undesirable standards. Unworthy considerations such as wealth, race, religion, personal appearance, family background, and popularity are predominant factors in the choice of members. It has been argued that this selectivity merely prevents those persons who would not be happy or satisfied with the group from joining (19). In other words, those who most urgently need the social activity and status provided by a fraternity are excluded on the grounds that they would be unhappy. This exclusiveness not only repudiates the democratic principles of the schools—it also causes jealousy and indignation in non-members, and may break the school into hostile camps, with parents joining in the battle (6).

Closed meetings and improperly chaperoned social events have caused many charges of gross immorality to be hurled at fraternities and sororities by the press. The clubs narrow the interests of the members, rather than increasing them, by encouraging snobbishness (5). They bring politics into the school, and tend to back their own candidates for office rather than considering what is best for the school. Because of this political organization, they often garner most of the school honors and offices, which causes feelings of helplessness and discouragement among non-members. So great is the power of a well-organized secret society that it often may successfully oppose or boycott a school activity and cause it to fail. Too frequently administrators have had to seek club support before announcing a social event, in order to avoid its failure. Club initiations are often stupid, brutal, and vicious, and in a few instances death is reported to have resulted from them (14).

When a young person is away from home in a college, he may find security and a second home in the fraternity house. By that time it is also assumed that he is mature enough to see both the good and evil of the Greek-letter organizations, and will be able to conduct himself in a creditable manner, no matter what undesirable influences may tempt him. But a high-school youth usually is living at home and has no need for a society patterned after college life (4). Furthermore, he is not yet mature enough to resist "going along with the gang." He needs peer approval so greatly that he will try to spend as much time as possible with his group, usually to the detriment of other desirable activities and his studies.

Rather than improving scholastic work, it has been shown that members of high-school secret societies generally have lower grades than do non-members. The following study, though made forty years ago, compares quite closely to more recent and complicated studies (6).

## SCHOLARSHIP AND ATTENDANCE RECORDS OF FRATERNITY AND NON-FRATERNITY BOYS IN THE LINCOLN HIGH SCHOOL, LINCOLN NEBRASKA.

<i>Scholarship and attendance 1916 to 1917</i>	<i>Fraternity boys, 129</i>	<i>Non-fraternity boys, (unselected) 129</i>
Number of studies in which marks of 90 per cent or more were made	96	152
Number of studies in which failures occurred	102	48
Number of days absent	1,386	1,085
Number of times tardy	802	412

Educators and school administrators are in agreement that secret societies are undesirable and against the best interests of the school and community, but they have found that such groups are extremely difficult to abolish. Once established, they survive quite well the legitimate competition of school-sponsored activities, even though the program may be well-rounded (11). As more and more educators became concerned with the problem, various approaches to regulation were tried, with varying degrees of success. The National Association of Secondary-School Principals published reports on some of the programs attempted, and, through the study of these reports, certain new aspects of the problem come to light.

There are two types of secret groups; those that are organized with the consent of the faculty, and those that are organized either without or against the consent of the faculty (5). A great number of clubs operate partially within the school under other than Greek names. Some come out of Y groups and interest clubs. Because these clubs are ostensibly part of the school extracurricular program, they are quite difficult to detect, much less to control. The best way to discover if a group is secret is to examine it carefully for any indication of restricted membership on the basis of wealth or background (16). Careful faculty supervision should prevent any such undesirable standards to appear at all.

The school administrator who wishes to abolish the secret societies in his school must prepare the way well. It becomes apparent through study of the following reports on methods of dealing with fraternities and sororities that constructive regulation must supersede destructive regulation. Repression will not work. The co-operation of student administrators, teachers, parents, and the student body is necessary for any program of elimination to be effective (5).

## EXAMPLES OF ACTIONS TAKEN

*Lansdowne High School (Pennsylvania).* In 1949 twenty-seven per cent of the student body belonged to a fraternity or sorority. The school

authorities did not sponsor nor recognize these groups, and had banned their activities on the school premises, although such activities were carried on in spite of the ruling. Although many parents objected to the undemocratic methods, hazardous initiations, and inadequate supervision common to these groups, the school disclaimed all responsibility, and said it was the parents who must take any action. This was difficult, not only because the parents were not organized, but also because there was pressure from the youth themselves to leave things as they were. Affairs continued to grow worse, and, finally, four hundred parents joined together and voted to have the school board take action to abolish the organizations completely. Opinion polls and studies were instituted by the board. Legal aspects were examined. Results showed that parents and educators were overwhelmingly opposed to the existence of secret societies, and that the state gave authority to the school board to abolish them. A report was drawn up examining the *pros* and *cons* of the situation. Then the following steps were taken:

1. A pamphlet of the findings was distributed throughout the community.
2. The reports were given to the secret societies involved, and they were asked to take in no new members.
3. The reports were presented to the parents of children in grades seven, and eight, and they were asked to forbid their children to join any non-approved clubs.
4. A more adequate social program was developed in the school.
5. Each student was required to sign an agreement certifying that he was not a member of a secret society before he could take part in any school activity or hold any office. This agreement was to be witnessed by the student's parents.
6. No fraternity activities were permitted on the school grounds.
7. Those students who were already in a secret organization when the plan went into effect were allowed to continue without restriction for the remainder of their high-school careers.

The results of this program was that the secret clubs died a natural death at the end of four years. Public co-operation, careful planning, and good publicity were responsible for the success of the program (7).

*Lakewood High School (Ohio).* In Lakewood a student was either in a secret group or *out* and of no account. One did what he was told to do, and any rebellion would prove most embarrassing. Parents who dared to stand out against fraternities and sororities were embarrassed by the members' parents. Many in the community were willing to attack these groups if they could have been certain that they would not have been left holding the bag. Some parents resisted because their children would not have been leaders had not money and social background been standards. Finally, a program of slow but increasing pressure against the societies was installed. New students were urged not to participate in any but school-approved activities. A coat-of-arms pin for seniors and graduates replaced fraternity insignia. Fraternity and sorority members were harassed and discouraged constantly. Gradually school offices were awarded to those who backed the school program. Within two years it

was not considered "smart" to be in a secret group. At that time the board of education officially prohibited membership. The largest group voluntarily turned in their books and disbanded, soon to be followed by the rest of the clubs. Constant unrelenting pressure and good timing were the basic reasons for the success of the Lakewood program. (33).

*Lorain High School (Ohio).* The principal and school board worked together in outlining a definite program before action was initiated. The first step was the outlawing of wearing fraternity jackets, sweaters, and insignia within the school. Parents were informed of the regulation, and violators were to be sent home to change, and to receive a zero for each class missed. The student body was prepared for the abolition of secret groups by discussions and reports. The PTA also held discussions. An improved social program was instituted. Then at the end of three years three choices were to have been given to the secret groups: to disband, to accept school sponsorship, or to agree to take no new members. The last steps were never taken. Public difficulties caused by the first regulations became so severe that the program was called to a halt. Thus it may be seen that even with careful planning affairs may go awry. Lorain High School has at least benefited from the improved extracurricular program, and the principal hopes that someday a more effective program of elimination may be instituted (27).

*Portland City High Schools (Oregon).* A city-wide survey was held to discover what secret societies offered that approved clubs did not. Results were:

1. Evening meetings held in private homes
2. Contact with students of other schools
3. Group dating
4. Formal dances

Approved clubs were set up which tried to meet these requirements. The students wholeheartedly approved, but the faculty quite rightly objected to the extra evening duties which they were called upon to perform. The Portland chapter of the American Association of University Women then selected women for adult education classes to train them to run the meetings. An officers' training class was held in the school for student officers. It was discovered through investigation that high-school freshmen often accept the first invitation they may receive to join a club, regardless of congeniality or "morals," in order to "rate." Eighth-grade students were stimulated by panel discussions on extracurricular activities and standards for social and club activities in high school. Parents had round-table discussions with their children. Interest questionnaires were given, and on this basis, every freshman received an invitation to join one of the approved clubs. Standards regarding admission and procedures were established for all public high schools in Portland, and any group which could meet these standards was given a charter. Members of unchartered groups were summarily expelled from school. The result

of this city-wide drive was that secret societies died out, and student interest and participation in the school-approved activities not only improved, but has continued to grow throughout the years (34).

*Corvallis High School (Oregon).* Here is an example of a different approach toward regulation of secret societies. In Corvallis there is a state agricultural college, and, when fraternities were inaugurated there, there was a corresponding growth in the high-school secret groups. The superintendent of schools discussed the matter with student leaders and alumni, and all agreed that the school would be much better off without such organizations. The following year a systematic social organization was extended throughout the entire school. Membership in the sororities and fraternities was compulsory, with the result that the coveted social distinction of belonging to such a group disappeared when the opportunity was presented to all. All groups met two times a month on school time. Attendance was necessary to receive an English grade. Credits were given in achievement (actual work put in on the program). Under faculty advisership, brother and sister sororities and fraternities put on plays, dances, and parties. Thus a double purpose was served. Everyone belonged to a group, and the social activities of the school were greatly extended through the efforts of these groups (4).

*White Plains High School (New York).* The history of this anti-fraternity movement shows how many difficulties may arise to frustrate action. The first protest meetings were held in 1928 and 1929. At that time parents and teachers were confronted with effective arguments, and no action was taken against the secret clubs. The number continued to increase. The school prohibited the wearing of insignia, but club members openly violated the regulations. When the yearbook refused to print the club pictures, the clubs printed a special book of their own. Finally in 1941, the death of a girl was alleged to have been connected with club activities. Community and school authorities became aroused, and decided to take action.

A questionnaire was circulated, and results showed that eighty per cent of those questioned opposed the secret groups. The school board, on the basis of these results, ruled that members of Greek-letter societies were to be barred from school activities. The groups then simply dropped the Greek names and became "clubs." In 1945 a pledge was drawn up to be signed by each student and his parents which stated that any member of a non-approved group was to be barred from participating in school activities. This drove the exclusive groups underground, and a number of them disbanded. In 1947 Theta Gamma Sorority alumni set up a club for girls which was much like the earlier sororities, but not connected in any way with the school. Soon this disassociation became the pattern for other societies, and the groups flourished in much the same manner as before. In 1949 the board of education appointed a committee of parents, teachers, adults, and high-school officers to study the problem. The recommendation which came from this study was that out-of-school activi-

ties be incorporated into the school on an open-book basis, with membership requirements published. The general organization of the school used publicity and careful planning. Soon the clubs were incorporated, and anyone who could meet the requirements was able to join. The clubs themselves co-operated fully, and the program turned out to be a satisfactory solution to the problem (24).

*Newton High School (Massachusetts).* Newton High School had secret societies, but there was little direct evidence of their existence. Initiation oddities were squelched by school authorities when noted. Indirect evidence of their existence was great, however. They ran elections, got parts in the school plays, and dominated committees. Gradually the school began to get a bad reputation. Truancies, forged notes, and forged reports were attributed directly to the quality of ethical standards of some of the groups. In 1947, however, a combination of circumstances elected a group of officers who were not interested in the continuation of fraternities and sororities. The president-elect of the senior class determined to lead in their elimination.

After calling upon the principal and the superintendent to state their stand against the clubs, these officers began a program of information, discussion, and publicity which resulted in the signing of pledge cards barring all club members from school activities. Present members were allowed to continue without restriction until graduation. The secret groups faded out of the picture. Here is an outstanding and unusual example of young people taking matters into their own hands. It is rare that students have the courage to face peer-group censure in order to do what they consider the right thing. This program of elimination, because it was student-instituted and student-run, was a source of great pride to all the young people in the school (10).

*Grand Rapids Central High School (Michigan).* The students in Grand Rapids High School were informed rather abruptly that they must obey the state law and sign pledges of non-membership in secret societies in order to take part in school activities. This ruling caused much bitterness and confusion, and it became apparent that the regulation would be ineffective unless other measures were taken. The principal had the students write down what it was that fraternities and sororities did that the school couldn't do better. Many answers came in, among them formal dances, house parties, bull sessions, and social prestige. The school then settled down to work on these problems. It was difficult, and the proceedings were slow, but each problem was taken up one by one. The social program was greatly enlarged. Dances and parties were given each week, and the hours of these affairs were made later. Formal dances were held, and club meetings were held in the homes of members. Authorization was given for all-day picnics and away-from-school parties. The school even set up a well-chaperoned weekend "house party" at a nearby camp, and everyone was urged to attend. The students found these new and more interesting activities so exciting that the need for

secret groups disappeared. This solution to the problem shows how important it is to have a varied, well-planned extracurricular program. Such excellent programs are often instrumental in preventing secret societies from springing up in the first place (8).

#### SOME PRACTICAL PROCEDURES

The examples stated show only a few of the methods employed by educators to rid their schools of undesirable secret organizations. Research will turn up many other ideas, some similar to those already mentioned, and some that will be entirely different.

There may be a question in the minds of some as to the legality of compulsory signing of pledge cards, and the suspension of club members from schools, even though the clubs may be active entirely outside the school. Legal prohibition has been challenged on almost every ground, but it has been upheld in the courts. It is axiomatic that those who seek the benefits of the educational institutions of the state must submit to the regulations imposed as a prerequisite (30). The courts hold that it is not unconstitutional to forbid members of secret societies to participate in non-school-approved activities. The aim of the free school system is to be equally available to rich and poor. Sororities and fraternities do not grant this aim. (17).

Before taking action against secret groups, it is well to look into the extracurricular program of the school. There is nothing of a genuinely constructive nature furnished by a fraternity or sorority that cannot be provided in a greater measure by approved activities. If careful examination of the existing approved clubs proves them to be inadequate, steps should be taken to build up a program which emphasizes leadership opportunities, complements classroom work, and which has absorbing group projects. Direct attention should be given to:

1. School facilities. It is desirable to have student body offices, a store, a school bank, committee rooms, and a well-equipped recreation hall.
2. Students should direct their own finances.
3. Inter-school relationships.
4. "Traditions" programs. There should be a great deal of *esprit de corps*.
5. Assemblies
6. Activities utilizing the entire student body (23).

After making sure that a full and extensive program of extracurricular activities is under way, it is time to think about ridding the school of the secret groups.

There seem to be as many methods as there are situations. From the study of the foregoing procedures, however, several basic principles emerge which would seem to apply in nearly all cases. Remember that definite iron-clad rules seem merely to drive such societies underground, and much forethought and pre-planning is necessary (28). A good outline for any plan of elimination is suggested by Johnston (3) and several others (18) (11) (15).

1. Conduct a survey and opinion poll in the community and the school.
2. Obtain written opinions from groups in other cities.
3. Look into the legal aspects thoroughly. Find out what has been accomplished by other cities in the state that have attempted to eliminate secret societies, and, if matters were taken to court, what the decisions were.
4. The results of the opinion polls and surveys will in all probability show that secret groups are unwanted. (If the results do *not* show this, any further action is unwarranted, as the program is bound to fail sooner or later.)
5. Have the results of the surveys printed and circulated to everyone in town. The more publicity the better. City-wide action is greatly to be desired, as it lends stature to the program.
6. Take action only after there has been extensive and comprehensive pupil, parent, and teacher education on the problem.
7. Ask the board of education to outlaw the secret groups and to set a time limit.
8. Introduce pledge cards to be signed by all students and their parents, stating that members of non-approved groups will be barred from participation in school activities.
9. Have the board of education list definite penalties for membership.
10. Make the students feel that it is *their* program.
11. Try not to let the question come up for open public debate. Round-table and panel discussions and speeches are good to give understanding, but emotional public displays should be avoided at all costs.
12. Last, and most important, be honest and be democratic. Conduct all proceedings in a parliamentary manner. Democratic processes may take longer, but the results will be surer and students will learn of the workability of democracy.

No program can be cut and dried. There is no "royal road" to elimination of secret societies in high schools. Just as every individual is different, so do groups of individuals vary. Any program undertaken will need to be adapted to the group itself, and what works in one city may be a dismal failure in another. The important thing to remember is that a strong offense is generally the best defense (33).

Social life is an important area of adolescent learning, and it is, consequently, of responsibility for the secondary school. The school which has not canvassed the social needs of its pupils and provided a program to suit their needs is failing in a vital area of its obligation to youth (3). The school which closes its eyes to the existence of undemocratic groups which take in only a few "acceptable" persons and leave the greater number to stand rejected and unhappy on the outside is failing in its aims of teaching democracy and equality for all. Such a situation should not be tolerated. It is not easy to rid a school of secret societies, but any educators who have had the courage and tenacity to stick to their guns have found the results highly satisfying, not only to themselves, but also to parents, teachers, and student bodies. Everyone profits from the extra-curricular program that is not harried and demoralized by undemocratic and exclusive secret societies, but which offers a well-rounded and vital program open to *all* on an equal basis.

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#### EUROPEAN STUDY TOUR IN COMPARATIVE EDUCATION

WAYNE State University's College of Education and Graduate School again approve credit arrangements in connection with the Tenth Annual European Study Tour in Comparative Education. Personally conducted by Dr. William Reitz, Professor of Education, the tour will leave Detroit on June 21, 1957, and return on August 24, 1957. Visiting ten countries in nine weeks, this tour is designed to provide teachers, students, and professional people with an opportunity to survey selected highlights of the life and culture of Western Europe. Qualified persons may earn up to eight hours of undergraduate or graduate credit to apply on degree programs, for teaching certification, for annual salary increments, or for personal enrichment. Further information may be obtained from Dr. William Reitz, 727 Student Center, Wayne State University, Detroit 2, Michigan.

## **Basic Principles for Fostering Integration in the Desegregated Schools**

**W. A. ROBINSON**

**E**VEN in our brief experience with today's newly integrated schools some things stand out as new in American public school experience, even including the long experience with unsegregated schools.

There is a keen awareness among many white students and teachers that the presence among them of Negro students is the result of the recognition of a new human relationship and a broader interpretation of American citizenship and of the ideals of American democracy. There is evidence among many Negro students of resolute determination to make a contribution to the new merged arrangement. There is also among the Negroes, as one might expect, a constant appraisal of the sincerity of the new relationship. Schools formerly operating as unsegregated schools under a sort of "local option" policy were never under the moral and legal compulsion to be truly democratic, which is felt in today's desegregated schools.

School administrators in these newly integrated schools are being called upon to interpret for teachers, for students, and for themselves what democracy is in these new relationships between students and between teachers and students. Many of these are now inter-racial situations in which many school children and adults have never before faced the consideration of democracy.

Administrators and teachers are discovering that integration brings to a school not only some new problems but adds some new angles to old problems, and occasionally brings into clearer focus some routine administrative situation.

Numerous factors have operated in recent years to give urgency and meaning to the struggle of the American Negro for first class citizenship in his native country. Important among these was the tragic demonstration which Germany gave to the world of what racism can do to brutalize and weaken a great nation. The awakening non-whites of Asia and Africa found Russia's offer of equal standing in the communist world an attractive substitute for the West's hesitant and uncertain proffer of

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democracy and freedom. The treatment by the United States of its Negro citizens has been a persistent threat to the prestige among the populous and potentially powerful non-white nations of the world's greatest and strongest democratic nation.

Finally, the cause of the American Negro prospered greatly from the wholesale demand of colonial peoples the world over for self-government and freedom from long years of European domination. The cause of the American Negro has run apace with the struggle for freedom and equality of humanity and with the compelling cause of world peace.

It cannot be overlooked, however, that in recent decades the descendants of the former American slaves have themselves greatly improved their group position through increased education, stronger organizations, improved economic status, better trained and more experienced lawyers, more skilled journalists and increasingly powerful newspapers and publications. These and other sources of group cohesion have made it possible for the American Negro to take advantage of the world situation in furthering his efforts to gain opportunity and consideration as a full citizen of the United States.

Because of this combination of factors, today's "desegregated" schools are vastly different from the unsegregated schools of the last hundred years. Negro students at the University of North Carolina, for instance, share more of the ordinary privileges of other students than did Negro students fifteen years ago at some of the unsegregated state universities in the north and middle west. The unsegregated public school openly deprived the Negro students of any privilege which it decided they should not have. Negro teachers were employed or not employed as community pressure dictated. In fact, in many of the cities in which the schools have been unsegregated for many years, Negro teachers are still employed only in the schools with mixed student bodies. Some of the newly integrated school districts have placed Negro teachers not only in the "mixed" schools, but immediately have placed Negro teachers in all of the former all-white schools even though residence places no Negro students in some of the schools. Integration is considered by the school boards of these districts as an educational advantage that none of the white children should miss because of residence. Acceptance of the Negro into the public schools with whites was formerly a privilege offered to Negroes with as many limitations as the school administrators cared to impose. The fact that his taxes helped to support the schools was not seriously considered. Attendance at the common public schools was not, as it is today, a constitutional right won by a court decision and with the prospect that later it might be broadened and refined by further appeals to the courts.

School administrators are learning in the newly integrated public schools of the United States, three facts regarding public school administration:

1. Desegregation is purely a legal re-arrangement of students.

2. Integration is the real purpose of desegregation, but depends upon the personal attitudes of individuals regarding their relationships to each other.

3. Attitudes are taught and learned, and growth in attitudes favorable to integration will be fostered or retarded as school administrators and school staffs grow or fail to grow in social insights.

The eleven principles stated below are mainly the expression of observations of what happens in America's desegregated schools. Any principle stated today may need revision toward a more positive statement of intent as the desegregation movement marches ahead or as subsequent court decisions interpret the rights of citizens. Greater clarity of these statements and new principles will need to be expressed as schools have more experience with this new interpretation of American democracy. The expression "integration" is already beginning to replace "desegregation" in public statements and would seem to be evidence of a growing disposition to give a more positive and voluntary flavor to the movement. The Negroes of America have contributed much to the national heritage and Americans have recognized this contribution as valuable to the building of a stronger nation. Perhaps the Negroes' most valuable contribution will be a new sense of inter-racial fellowship that can help America to assume an honest and sincere leadership in an awakening world that is so overwhelmingly colored.

## I

*The integration of the American public school system by which the children of all Americans are taught together in the same public school needs to be treated as a transition intended to improve the educational opportunities of all those affected by it.*

Both Negroes and whites approach the fact of integration with varying emotions and varying points of view regarding its interpretation. Some white advocates of integration of the races (all racial and cultural groups) in the public schools envision little more than admitting Negro (or other minority children) into the classrooms of the white schools. Holders of this attitude refuse to accept the fact that the schools will no longer be "white" schools but truly become public schools. Expressions of opinion of such limitations upon integration have been made frequently and are somewhat widespread.

There is no question that the legal re-arrangement of children in the schools becomes a limitation of educational opportunity and of ambition, if participation in any school activity is denied because of racial, religious or other group affiliation. Participation in athletics is considered normal procedure and is sought from Negro students in most unsegregated schools. The appearance of other than white faces in many school activities such as dramatic groups (except in racial character roles), dance groups, ushers, and, perhaps chorus or band groups, may seem completely out of place and unthinkable to some activity sponsors and some students. The

social traditions that have grown up around some activities, such as sponsorship by exclusive community organizations, are also a deterrent sometimes to inviting participation from minority groups. These activities are part of the education of young people. Denial of participation in any school activity to students of any group is a limitation of educational opportunity as well as a symbol of rejection and a humiliating implication of inferiority.

Negro parents and Negro children who consider the frequently expressed "white" points-of-view of integration are divided in their reactions toward desegregation. Some Negro parents and children are doubtful of the benefits to be gained from the limited opportunities of mere presence in the classrooms with white children. They reject the conclusion that Negro schools are inferior *per se*, and are fearful of the educational losses children may suffer in integrated schools. Negroes want to be rid of the stigma of being second class and they know that segregation carries such a stigma. But many Negroes fear that certain painful forms of segregation and discrimination will follow the Negro children into the white schools and will result in exchanging one kind of second-class status for another in which the children are the greatest sufferers. A year of integration in many schools has shown that it is possible to discover and eliminate those elements in the integrated schools that prevent the extension of the full advantages of the public schools equally to all children. Some of these elements are subtle and elusive. Many are rooted in long established school tradition, but they do ultimately give way to determined good intentions and public school integration can undoubtedly accomplish the general good for which it is intended.

It is entirely possible, however, that there may need to be further appeal to the courts in some areas until the principle is established that the integration of the public schools, as ordered by the decision of the Supreme Court, is intended to result in improving the educational opportunity of all those affected by it. By and large, Negro parents realize that they have deliberately placed their children in a situation which imposes upon the parents the responsibility of constant watchfulness and continuous dependence upon the courts.

There is need also to understand the unrelenting attitudes of opposition to integration by many whites in the deep south. These attitudes are intensified and exploited by many politicians and by others who have a vested interest in keeping alive group antagonisms. There seems also to be an increasing number of southerners who believe in justice and respect for law. Perhaps the most hopeful testimony is the fact that the contacts between Negro and white servicemen have often resulted in the development of mutual respect and friendly relations between individuals who never before have experienced such contacts.

## II

*The Supreme Court of May 17, 1954, gives the teachers of America their first opportunity in the history of American Public Schools*

*to teach to the children of America realistic democratic human relations and the common culture.*

It is customary to speak of the Negro school as the "segregated" school. The fact is not generally recognized that the same segregation is imposed upon white schools. Segregation limits the practice of democratic living and of good human relations for both minority and dominant groups. Children in neither group are able to develop emotionally or socially. By the very fact of segregation, schools teach a kind of racism that implies the inferiority of one child and the superiority of another. Whatever they may say when reciting the pledge of allegiance to the flag, children in segregated schools are learning that there is liberty and justice for "some." On the one hand, children are developing a deep-seated resentment against a governmental system that takes unfair advantage of some of its people because it can. On the other hand, children are learning a brand of racism that can lay the foundation for the kind of brutality and genocide that American soldiers fought against in Germany and that historically has brought weakness to every nation whose citizens have nurtured such ideas.

Fundamentally, then, the purpose of integrating the public schools of the nation is to deny any political support to the theory of racial inferiority or superiority of groups within the citizenry. It is the beginning of teaching all children in the world's greatest democratic nation the fact of a pluralistic citizenry of potentially useful Americans whose incidental differences in physical characteristics, national origin, or religion may be assets to the common culture but certainly are not liabilities.

America has a common culture to which all groups in America have contributed and which is the rightful heritage of all its citizens. The nation's public schools are the vehicles of this common culture that makes Americans of the children of all American citizens.

### III

*The coming of integration into a school can bring new social insights, a re-examination of the meaning of democracy, and greater acceptance of democratic principles of group behavior.*

Democracy, like any other value judgment or appreciation, is learned by having the opportunity to practice it. Teaching democracy requires that schools consciously and deliberately provide in all possible learning situations for the kind of democratic school life through which students of different economic, religious, racial and national backgrounds can learn inter-group understanding, respect, and friendship.

Fortunately most American schools have numerous well established student activities whose purpose it is to teach the kind of democratic group behavior which characterizes good citizenship. Integration only makes it necessary to adapt these organizations to a new teaching task that involves an expanded interpretation of American democracy. It will now be necessary for sponsors along with the student membership to take a

new and critical look at these organizations. It is quite possible that they will discover that these so-called democratic activities have not all, even before integration, been truly democratic. Young people of high-school age are inclined to be exclusive in their organizations, and it is easy for their school organizations to develop traditions that make them in fact exclusive.

Are the Hi-Y and Y-Teen groups holding their meetings at the homes of members and are there some boys and girls who are not members of these groups for that reason? There are undoubtedly some advantages in meeting in the homes of members, but a practice which limits per se the membership of school activity to certain economic, ethnic, or status groups generates an attitude of exclusiveness in a group of young citizens. Such a practice has surely limited membership in these groups to young people of a certain economic and social status. The students who are excluded by such practices are not by any means the only or the greatest losers.

Teachers may justify their selection of student representatives for such special opportunities as Boys' and Girls' States by having made their choice on the basis of criteria such as character, leadership, and service. The evaluation of these qualities is highly subjective and validity of choice is further limited by the fact that many students, who might rate as high in such qualities, are not known to many of the teachers in the group. When teachers encourage students to consider the democratic quality and the growth of social insights involved in also having various groups—ethnic, economic, religious, and perhaps others,—represented in an activity whenever feasible, they encourage students to consider such representation as having both democratic importance and contributing to the experience a certain social efficiency needed in a nation made up of many groups. They also give participants a chance to get to know personally young people of many groups, under conditions most favorable to inter-personal understanding. Any procedure for choosing representation which denies young people favorable experiences in human relations loses to them valuable social understandings and insights needed for the kind of world in which they live.

Business and clubs, and other sponsors that finance the school's representatives to such special opportunities, can be readily convinced of the values to participants of broad representation which includes from time to time students from all ethnic or cultural groups. Support for the sponsoring businesses certainly comes from all groups according to their economic ability.

#### IV

*Deliberate consideration by the administration and faculty should be given to improving the status and peer acceptance of the various minority groups in the schools.*

Boys and girls of high-school age may easily be much less inhibited in matters of race than are adults in the community or in the school. This

greater limit of racial tolerance, or naive youthful idealism, may operate to the embarrassment of an administrator unless he either has a sustaining philosophy regarding his responsibility in matters of student inter-personal relations or anticipates the possibility of such situations. Sudden and ill-considered policy announcements, based on a belief that the students have gone beyond the tolerance limit of the community, are unfortunate and may seriously impede the development of normal human relations among students.

Before the integration of Negroes into the public schools, good guidance policies, mental health, and good human relations have always motivated schools to consider procedures that give status and peer acceptance to individuals. In integration this kind of thinking and planning should be deliberately extended to the latest group to be integrated, for the same reasons that it had always been practiced with regard to groups within the majority racial group. The school's entire program of human relations should be reconsidered. In some American communities the coming of Negroes into the public schools may stimulate more and better human relations procedures that affect all cultural groups in the school. New insights growing out of the experience of creating attitudes of acceptance for the Negro group will probably show that there is a need for developing better inter-group attitudes toward certain cultural or nationality fractions among the students who were already attending the former "white" schools.

Experience has already produced evidence that the great majority of the newly integrated Negro students have no desire to intrude themselves upon other students. In strange and uncertain surroundings it is only natural that individuals will seek the security of association with other individuals of whose acceptance they are sure, that is, with others of their own group. This kind of voluntary grouping has in some instances intruded itself into some classes, especially the large physical education classes, when there are intra-class groupings for contests of skill. This is unfortunate. When the effect of such a grouping is permitted to be a test of skill between racial groups, intentionally or not, it not only proves nothing of importance regarding group superiority, but it injects into the contest racial bitterness that can result in numerous forms of bad sportsmanship and unsocial behavior.

Because of the persistent Negro stereotypes, even the obvious evidence regarding the superior intelligence of some individual Negroes can fail to correct the attitudes of persons already convinced of the fact of racial inferiority. The contrary testimony of science is so well known that it should not be necessary to prove to any one with preparation as a teacher that there are superior individuals in all cultural and ethnic groups. It should also be common knowledge among teachers that the stultifying effects of poverty and social deprivation may operate to limit within a group the number of persons in the upper intelligence levels. Only as a faculty comes to know these newly integrated students better as indivi-

duals will the discovery of superior individuals among them become more and more frequent. Procedures for discovery must be used by schools which bring superior students of all groups into sharper focus. Until such discoveries are made and superiority is recognized as an individual matter, no student should be mentioned in recommendations as: "one of our best Negro students," or "one of our best Mexican students." A great disservice is done to any group of students if the impression is given to employers or to colleges that these students are as a group inferior. If it is ever necessary to mention a student's group affiliation or race, it should not be so mentioned as to disqualify the student as being a superior individual without regard to race or group affiliation. The student's dependable character, his speed and accuracy as a typist, his excellence in any subject matter field, in fact, any of his outstanding personal traits should be reported as those of an individual and not by implication as those of a somewhat high ranking member of an inferior group.

Students should earn scholarships, if they do earn them, as individuals competing for recognition with other individuals and not as members of a minority group who excel other members of their group and so deserve some recognition. The latter kind of recognition would divest a scholarship award of the kind of honor that makes awards have value to a student and that brings the student deserved consideration as a superior person.

Since serving in elective office in school organizations, and "service" to the school, are usually given consideration in awards, teachers should help superior students of minority groups to find opportunities to give service to the school, as in all probability, these students for a time will seldom be elected to office in student organizations. Counselors of superior students can suggest kinds of useful volunteer service in which students can engage, thereby giving them recognition for "service."

## V

*Both the newly integrated students and their parents should be given a convincing welcome to the new school.*

The student newspaper, if there is one, is an excellent means of welcoming the new students and of helping the student body to commit its hospitality in a stated welcome to their new schoolmates. Whatever the means, the welcoming students should realize that these new students have given up strong loyalties to a school home, which they loved, in order to make, as young Americans, a contribution to American democracy, and that this contribution should not be a one-sided affair. These new students should be assured that they and their talents are welcomed by their new schoolmates.

This is not a new sentiment. The schools have probably always welcomed new students at the opening of school and such courtesy has become a standard procedure. Schools normally encourage such thoughtfulness as one means of teaching courtesy.

The parents of the newly integrated group should also be given a convincing welcome to the school's parent groups. Such a letter of invitation might state that the new parents are not only welcomed to the parent groups but are urged to attend group meetings and to help through the new insights which they can contribute. The new parents will feel more accepted if they are put on committees and recognized in the same ways that the parent group has always recognized new parents. A school administration can always use the sincere co-operation of the parents and the co-operation of these new parents can be very useful to successful integration.

## VI

*A Negro counselor on the school's counseling staff can make a valuable contribution by helping white counselors to do a more understanding job of counseling with their new Negro counselees.*

In the main all young people are more alike than they are different and a trained counselor can do effective counseling with any young person. No one knows better than a professionally trained counselor that unfamiliarity with the background and personal problems of an individual and his status group life can be a serious handicap in making fair and unbiased judgments regarding the person. There are always logical sounding stereotypes that can influence one's judgment. Nobody knows a group as well as a member of that group. A trained member of a counseling staff who can give help to other staff members through special kinds of insights can be most valuable to the counseling staff and to teachers and administrators.

Counselors in "unsegregated" schools have often been most unfair to Negro and to Mexican-American students by trying to get students of these groups to make what white counselors considered more realistic choices of courses and of careers. Many Negroes now in prominent positions can testify that they would never have attained these positions if they had not completely rejected the advice of their high school and college counselors. Schools planning to integrate would make better adjustment to their task if they could in the very first year have the services of a trained counselor who is a Negro. Certainly this would not be for the purpose of counseling all Negroes or only Negroes. In fact, there would be a distinct advantage in having among the school's professional personnel, as counselors or teachers, persons from every minority group represented in the student body.

## VII

*Pressure in the matter of handling behavior cases must be resisted. Most incidents between Negro and white students are not racial.*

When students of the same groups are involved in a behavior case, the administrator is generally free to handle the case in a counseling session as a teaching-learning situation. But when race is a factor in similar

cases, pressure "to do something about it" can cause a fearful administrator more or less to abandon the exercise of the professional judgment in the situation and to try to appease the pressure. Pressure of this irrational kind can come even from members of the school staff. The administrator not only needs to be securely certain of his own judgment in handling such a case; he must begin at the first occurrence of such a case, or even before, to help the entire school staff to see that they have a moral and professional obligation to view such cases objectively. An administrator must have the confidence of his staff before he can hope to have the confidence of his community. As long as the administrator is the object of strong and persistent pressures to do what he knows is unobjective and unprofessional handling of certain discipline cases, it will be impossible for those responsible for handling discipline to be fair to students of minority groups.

Evidence from many communities in which schools have had one year of integration attests to the fact that incidents of conflict are far fewer than was anticipated. Such conflicts as did occur were generally the result of the same factors that would have brought about conflict between two individuals of the same racial group. This was often true even when racial or color epithets were involved. The difference in race merely operated to make the name-calling more explosive. Such cases should be handled as would any case of conflict in which name-calling is involved. The aggressor should be discovered and counseled or penalized, if penalty seems to be indicated, for purposes of school morale. Students should be convinced of the bad taste and stupidity of resorting to name-calling in a disagreement. All children subject to group epithets must be convincingly counseled that name-calling of this kind in no way diminishes the victim. No one, by name-calling, can make us less than we are. Name-calling is the offender's attempt to remove reason from the situation and he must not be allowed to succeed.

### VIII

*Complete fairness to all students is the only means by which an administrator can win the confidence and respect of students, teachers, and parents.*

Usually few persons are unaware that unfair tactics are used. In the case of students, both those who are favored and those who are treated unfairly lose confidence in fairness as a social principle and in the school as an unbiased social institution. Loyalties, so necessary to a strong institution, are compelled to suffer. This has been recognized by schools, long before integration of the races in the public schools was declared by the Supreme Court, to be a fulfillment of the democratic spirit of the United States Constitution. It is no less true now that integration has brought into the American public schools children whose social mistreatment and abuse may never before have been a matter of serious social concern in the community. Integration is a movement toward a more

realistic interpretation of social morality. If a Negro student is robbed of an honor or of a recognition or, because of race, loses to another student in the same school some deserved consideration, the principle of American fair play is being violated by the very institution which democracy has created in order to teach social morality to its youth. Again, we can only ask ourselves who suffers most in such a situation.

## IX

*A school which trains students for job placement has the responsibility to try honestly and persistently to place all prepared students, regardless of race, in jobs for which they are prepared.*

Prior to integration the schools have operated on the principle that individual differences, which in no way affected a student's effectiveness, should not operate to prevent the schools from seeking to find a fair market for the skills of deserving students. The schools cannot morally assume that the employment practices of the community regarding Negroes or Jews or Mexicans or Indians relieve the schools of the obligation to make persistent and honest efforts to place students of these or any other groups in jobs commensurate with their skills. A school works for the welfare of its students in spite of public opinion. Good schools have always operated in terms of this principle and integration can only point up the school's responsibility. The fullest strength of a nation is in the fullest use of its potential man-power.

## X

*The library service in the newly integrated school should be explored immediately in order to discover what important new functions the school library should have in an integrated school.*

The librarian in the newly integrated school should see that the Negro children have access to the Negro newspapers, magazines, and to many books of special interest to them that they had in the libraries of the segregated Negro schools. If the librarian is not already acquainted with these materials, he should inform himself and equip himself to make judgments regarding materials of this kind. These materials, and similar materials for the other minorities represented in the school's student body, have important usefulness in guidance and as reference materials in the school's task of teaching human relations. They are valuable in many ways whether or not the school has Negro students. There are also many new books of fiction dealing with the problems of students in "mixed" schools that school librarians should make available to students, teachers, and counselors in the newly integrated schools.

## XI

*The integrated school, whether it is a former all-white or all-Negro school, now has a community composed of many new people that it has not formerly served but whom it must now learn to serve.*

Perhaps the coming of integration of Negro students will help all schools to re-examine their conception of the "community" which the school should serve. The Negro high school has served the Negro community in many ways in which there will now be no service, unless the new school to which the Negro students now go realizes that it has become the community school of a new group of patrons. The new Negro patrons must realize, too, that they may look to the former all-white school for the kinds of services which they formerly received from the Negro school. If the local Negro church is holding a district conference and needs some music from the local high school, it must realize that it has a high school even though it is not now an all-Negro high school. Some segments of the population that have always sent children to the white high school have perhaps not felt that they should make requests of the school for vocal or instrumental groups or for speakers at community occasions, etc. This may have been a barrier caused by minority, economic, or social status. But the Negro community has been freely requesting and receiving services from its Negro high school and must either continue to receive them from its new high school or must cease to expect or to have such services. The student and the faculty groups miss valuable experiences and contacts and the community misses services which educators agree a school owes its community.

#### BEYOND THE HIGH SCHOOL

PLANS are being made by the President's Committee on Education Beyond the High School for six regional conferences to be held during the first six months of 1957. To prepare for these conferences, the Committee, at its third meeting, held on July 19, divided into four subcommittees to conduct studies in the following four major problem areas: Arthur G. Coons, President of Occidental College, will serve as Chairman of Subcommittee I, planning a study of the question, "What is the demand for post high-school education now and for 10 to 15 years?" The question, "What are the resources to meet the demand now and in 10 to 15 years?" will be dealt with by Subcommittee II under chairmanship of Katharine E. McBride, President of Bryn Mawr College. A third question, "What Proposals have been made for modification and improvement," will be studied by Subcommittee III, with Paul C. Rinert, President of Saint Louis University, as chairman. Laurence F. Whittemore, Chairman of Board of Brown University, serving as Chairman of Subcommittee IV, will direct study of the questions, "What are and what should be the relationships between the Federal government and education beyond the high school?"

## Business and Education: A Fruitful Partnership

HELEN M. THAL

**“K**NOWLEDGE is of two kinds: We know a subject ourselves, or we know where we can find information upon it."

Dr. Samuel Johnson made that analysis more than two hundred years ago. No one would quarrel with his description today. But many people would add that the great number of new discoveries and highly complex inventions are increasing the number of subjects which we do not know ourselves and cannot be expected to know. Fortunately for all of us, it is also becoming easier to find information on what we do not know. A great deal of credit for this happy situation is due to the recognition by business and industry that they have a definite responsibility to help produce an educated and informed citizenry.

In the case of our elementary and secondary schools, this recognition of responsibility has resulted in the development of many business and industry-sponsored teaching aids designed to help the teacher inform his students about subjects that were never part of Dr. Johnson's school curriculum.

Business' entry into the educational field has not come about overnight. During the depression years when the nation was beset by hardships and many youngsters dropped out of school, educators realized that our school system was not preparing children adequately to meet their post-graduate responsibilities. It was their belief that not enough attention was given to preparing children for the responsibilities of citizenship, marriage, parenthood and earning a living.

As the result of numerous surveys and special studies made at this time, the school curriculum was overhauled. Soon we began hearing such descriptive phrases as "Life adjustment education" and "education for family living" which today are commonplace. To the three Rs were added such courses as language arts, social studies, home and family life, home management, junior business training, problems of democracy, international relations and a score of other subjects directly related to the world in which the student finds himself following graduation.

The changes in the school curriculum were accompanied by a change in the relationship between the school and the community. Whereas

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formerly children had been confined to the school, and community activities and affairs had been the province of their parents, now the community became the laboratory for the school.

These changes in the school curriculum and methods of teaching were gradually reflected by requests from teachers for permission for their classes to visit local factories and invitations to representatives of industry to speak to classes which were studying subjects about which the men from industry had special knowledge. Even more numerous were the requests to business and industry for teaching aids to supplement existing textbooks and make courses more interesting and meaningful to students.

At first, business and industry were entirely unprepared for this new partnership with education. But today, more and more companies are establishing educational departments which co-operate with schools by filling requests for classroom speakers, arranging for class tours of plants and offices and by making available free, supplementary teaching aids.

These aids take a variety of forms and are geared to every grade level. They include booklets, workbooks, picture books, charts, models, film strips and motion pictures.

Many business firms also provide a consulting service for teachers to help them incorporate technical and scientific information into their courses in such a way as to make it easily understood by the students. Many times, a company will also publish a special classroom pamphlet designed to explain a complex subject in simple terms. General Electric's "Adventures Inside the Atom" is a notable example of this service.

The growing partnership of business and education is also shown by the gradually increasing number of corporate gifts and endowments, scholarships, fellowships and other grants. The Council for Financial Aid to Education, Inc., reports that in 1955, business concerns gave \$39,432,625 to the nation's universities and colleges. This does not include grants made by business for contract research and grants to two-year colleges and specialized schools which, if included, brings business' financial contribution last year to more than \$80,000,000—an estimated one hundred percent increase over the 1950 figure. It also does not include gifts made by foundations such as the \$210,000,000 grant by the Ford Foundation to 615 privately supported liberal arts and science colleges and universities.

While all these grants have been made to institutions of higher learning, it is a contribution which cannot be overlooked by elementary and secondary-school administrators and teachers, when they consider that more than one-third of their students will go on to college.

The association between business and education has not developed without growing pains and considerable misunderstanding of the other fellow's needs and intentions. Teachers and school administrators have criticized business and industry for either attempting to interfere with education or for ignoring education's needs for help. And business has

complained that teachers frequently are not clear as to what they want from industry and are suspicious of business' good intentions.

That business and education have been guilty in some cases cannot be denied. But it is also true that the partnership, by combining the talents, skills and knowledge of both partners, is capable of producing products and developing services which are extremely beneficial and helpful to our educational system. Also, as in all successful partnerships, each side has something to gain by working together. In this case, business is the educators' source for free or inexpensive up-to-date materials which enhance and expand the school program and the nation's schools are business' source of future employees as well as customers. The trick of making the partnership a really effective one seems to lie in giving the initiative, leadership and supervisory powers to the educators. After all, education is the business of the teaching profession.

A quick look at one industry-sponsored educational program which has been widely accepted seems to bear this out. Back in the early forties, the Institute of Life Insurance, which represents the life insurance business, began to receive increased requests from teachers and school administrators for supplementary materials on money management, family finance and life insurance. To meet this, the Institute, in 1945, established an educational division where the responsibility for handling all such appeals for information from schools could be centered.

To find out how it could best serve the teacher's needs, the Institute consulted numerous educators throughout the country. In addition, a survey was made to determine what material on life insurance was contained in textbooks, and where the subject of life insurance would fit into the curriculum of the elementary and secondary school.

The result showed that teachers wanted to include the subject in existing courses in home economics, social studies, vocational guidance, mathematics and business education. The Institute also learned that current textbooks contained little or no information on life insurance and that there was no other source of information on the subject.

With these facts under its belt, the Institute's Educational Division shifted into high gear. Two curriculum areas—home economics and social studies—were selected as initial projects. In order to make sure that it would meet a genuine need in the secondary schools and measure up to the highest educational standards, the Institute called in a committee of educators for each project to supervise the planning and development of each program. This approach proved so successful that it has been continued by the Institute in developing new projects and in evaluating current materials.

As secondary schools began to make changes in their standard curriculum and greater emphasis was put on the various aspects of family living, including family finances, many teachers pointed out that they lacked the background necessary to teach these subjects.

In 1947, a group of educators came to the Institute for help in solving this problem. The result was the organization of a group now known as the National Committee for Education in Family Finance whose work the Institute agreed to underwrite. It was headed until this year by Dr. Harold C. Hunt, then Superintendent of Schools in Chicago, but now Under Secretary of Health, Education and Welfare.

As one of its first projects, the Committee, in 1950, set up a six-week summer workshop in family finance at the University of Pennsylvania which was directed by the University's School of Education with the assistance of the Wharton School of Finance and Commerce. This workshop has operated every summer since, and in addition, eleven more workshops have been established at universities throughout the country, now making it possible for five hundred teachers to participate each summer.

The workshops, however, turned out to be just the beginning. Workshop alumni went back to their local school systems filled with enthusiasm about this new and practical approach to some of life's most pressing problems. With assistance from the National Committee, they helped these school systems set up in-service courses for their own teachers.

As a supplement to these teacher-training programs, and for other instructors who are teaching family finance, a consulting service is provided. Also, a service bulletin, "Family Finance Topics for Teachers" is published, which deals with some of the problems the teacher faces in teaching family finance. Recent issues have dealt with such subjects as evaluating work in family finance, using guest speakers in class, using visual aids, teaching family finance in mathematics classes, and motivation of teachers and students.

That, in brief, is the history of what the Institute of Life Insurance is doing in co-operation with educators to help them improve their instructional programs on one particular topic. There are many other excellent examples, of course, of business and industry-sponsored education programs such as those developed by the National Dairy Council, The American Iron and Steel Institute, The Metropolitan Life Insurance Company, General Motors, and numerous other companies, institutes, and associations.

In all cases, however, the quality and effectiveness of business' contribution seems to depend upon how closely those responsible for the program have worked with and been guided by, educators. This, experience has proven, is the key to success in the growing partnership of business and education—a partnership which promises even greater benefits in the future, not only for business and educators in general, but for the millions of students whose training today will determine the world of tomorrow.

# It Can Be Done

MRS. CATHERINE BESTROM

HAVE you ever wished you could give your students training which would enable them to take their places in the business offices in our larger cities beside students from the large high schools? It can be done. In fact, I have found that many of my students can not only take their places beside the graduates from larger schools, but can also win the promotions.

How can one teacher teach typing, shorthand, bookkeeping, filing, office practice, adding and calculating machines, all the duplicating machines, and transcribing machines, be a co-ordinator for on-the-job training, and also handle his many extra-curricular assignments as well? I used to wonder this, too; but my desire to give my students more led me to add a little each year. Now, though I do not have a perfect program, my students are able to get training in all of the courses listed above.

My curriculum includes Typing I (a full year course), Bookkeeping (one-year course including introduction to partnerships and corporations, and the operation of adding machines and calculator), Shorthand (one-year course with the second semester devoted to dictation and transcription), Typing II and Office Practice (one year devoted to typing projects, duplication by spirit process and ink process, full visible keyboard and ten-key adding machines, motor driven calculator, filing, transcribing machine, with at least 16 hours and usually 24 hours spread over a 4-week period devoted to on-the-job training). This program is being offered in a six-period day schedule.

In comparison with the average program, the unusual course is the Typing II—Office Practice. At first glance it may seem impossible to cover all the contents of this course in one year. But it can be done. The students are enthusiastic, want to learn as much as possible and therefore spend any extra time necessary to become more efficient in any or all of the fields covered.

Minimum requirements of the course are as follows.

**Typing:** Cover Parts III and IV, including the workbook, of our particular textbook on typewriting. Be able to handle business letters, tabulations, invoices, bills of lading, postal cards, index cards, telegrams, and legal papers with ease, producing mailable copies.

**Duplication:** Complete at least one special project on each of the duplicating machines, take practical and objective tests on each machine.

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*Filing:* Complete a course in business filing. Pass practical and objective tests on the course. Time spent is approximately 6 to 8 weeks, three periods per week.

*Adding Machines:* Complete at least ten jobs each on both the ten-key and full-keyboard machines. Pass practical timed test on addition, subtraction, and multiplication, and pass an objective test.

*Electric Calculator:* Practice all processes on the machine until it is possible to pass practical tests on all four processes.

*Electric Typewriter:* Practice on this typewriter until one can type as many or more n.w.p.m as on a standard typewriter.

*Transcribing Machine:* Everyone must complete at least one record, each letter being mailable. Those who make 75% or better on the minimum essentials prognostic test are encouraged to complete 18 records and take the test given by the company as a basis for the awarding of a Certificate of Proficiency presented by the company. (Last year five students won these certificates.)

*Office Practice:* Each student must spend one period per day on alternate weeks for at least one semester in the office of either the superintendent or the principal.

*On-the-job Training:* All seniors, either in Typing II—Office Practice or Bookkeeping, may choose to take On-the-job Training. They must spend 16 hours in four weeks (most of them spend 24 hours or more) doing actual work in a place of business. This is done in co-operation with the business men and industrialists in town. No student is paid, and no student takes the place of any regular employee, but works under these employees. As far as possible the students are given a choice of jobs and business places. Although retailing is not taught, students who wish are allowed to do on-the-job training as retail clerks under the supervision of experienced clerks and managers. Several of these on-the-job training sessions have led to permanent positions, although that is not the purpose of the training and both employers and students are informed of this fact.

Your next question will undoubtedly be one of finance. How can schools in small towns afford this program? Actually, the community can afford any program it wants badly enough. Educate your community on the advantages of such a program; in the meantime, rent machines, purchase some good used machines, encourage businessmen to donate or sell to the school their used machines when they replace them. The trade-in value is so low on these machines that the businessmen will be glad to co-operate.

In our system the school owns one full-keyboard electric adding machine, one ten-key crank operated adding machine, two spirit duplicators, one electric ink duplicator, one electric typewriter, and an electric posting machine. One of the local banks gave us the posting machine when they bought a new one. This gives us an extra electric full-keyboard adding machine, and, in addition, the students can learn how to operate a posting machine. We rent a transcribing unit for three or four months each year, and an electric calculator for one month each year.

## **Tentative Criteria in the Selection of the Superintendent**

**B. EVERARD BLANCHARD**

**U**NDOUBTEDLY, one of the most important positions in public schools today is that of selecting the superintendent of schools. Under his guidance and direction, a school can be either satisfactory or unsatisfactory. The responsibilities attached to the position are manifold and complex. With increased emphasis for broader or more detailed curriculums, better guidance and counseling programs, adequate supervision, possible construction plans being considered, the budget, public relations, and other related activities, the prospective superintendent needs to be thoroughly familiar and possess the ability to put any plans in operation which a Board of Education may recommend.

With an ever-perplexing growth of the public school system in the years to come and the increased demands made upon the superintendent's time, it appears feasible that candidates aspiring for such positions should be expected to measure up to certain standards. That these proposed standards may vary from one school system to another is well-known, but, nevertheless, minimum criteria should be adopted by every Board of Education. Since the Board of Education is responsible for developing the general policies regarding a particular school system, the membership of such Boards should be cognizant of possible criteria which could be resorted to in screening candidates for the position. With the latter thought in mind, it is the writer's opinion that each board of education should give serious thought to the following criteria in selecting a prospective candidate for the position of superintendent of schools.

1. Personal and social fitness for educational leadership as exemplified by a good appearance, excellent physical health, a strong personality, courage, discretion and effectiveness in addressing the public.
2. At least the Master of Arts degree in educational administration from an accredited school of education.
3. Ability to serve the students first and then work effectively with all employees of the system without permitting any to exercise undue influence on the system.
4. Administrative and executive ability as proven in public school experience.

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B. Everard Blanchard is Superintendent of Schools in Kunkle, Ohio.

5. Ability to win the respect and co-operation of students, staff and citizens in his administration of the schools.
6. Prominence and productivity in educational administration evidenced by active participation in state and national organizations and committee work, addresses at state and national meetings, and reports of investigations carried on as a basis for the development of policies in schools of which the individual has had charge.
7. Ability to lead in all phases of educational administration; that is, financial administration, supervision of instruction and curriculum reorganization preferably in both elementary- and secondary-school education, personnel administration, public relations, and educational statesmanship.
8. Conception of community obligations evidenced by his ability to co-ordinate the educational activities of civic and welfare agencies of the larger community and to develop working relations with neighboring school systems.
9. Confidence in his own ability, but be willing to listen to suggestions and criticisms offered by reliable sources and to be able to withstand pressure from self-interest groups of all kinds.
10. Candidate should be an individual of generally recognized standing, approaching the peak of his professional career, preferably not over fifty years of age.

#### EDUCATIONAL TV GETS NEW BOOST

USE of television by educational institutions, slow in starting, now is gathering increased speed, *Electronics*, McGraw-Hill magazine, reports. An estimated 100 institutions now have closed-circuit TV installations. In addition, there are twenty-five educational TV stations on the air and seven more are expected this year. Starting in September, more than 6,000 pupils in two high schools and six elementary schools in one Maryland county will receive part of their daily instruction by closed-circuit TV. So far, most installations in educational institutions have been small experimental hook-ups of two or three rooms. Present plans for the Maryland experiment call for the county's entire school system—a total of 47 schools—to be supplied with equipment by September, 1958, when approximately 20,000 pupils will receive TV instruction. Total cost of the project is estimated at over \$1,000,000, with the Ford Foundation's Fund for the Advancement of Education providing funds for training personnel and supervising the program. Educational TV proponents believe that successful results from this program will triple the use of closed-circuit TV as an educational medium, the magazine says.

## Teaching Load Formulas Compared

LEONARD H. CLARK

FOR many years administrators and educationists, disturbed by the inequalities and excesses of the teaching load, have tried to devise formulas by which teaching loads can be measured accurately and objectively. The need for a good teaching load formula is real as the many attempts to create such a formula confirm. Unfortunately no formula yet devised has proved entirely satisfactory. Thus an examination of the strengths and weaknesses of some of the more important formulas is in order.

In 1932, Harl R. Douglass introduced his first refined teaching load formula. In this formula, teaching load is measured in units which represent the teaching of one class of 20 pupils for one 45-minute period. The formula<sup>1</sup> reads:

$$TL = SC \left[ CP - \frac{2 Dup}{10} + \frac{(NP - 20CP)}{100} \right] \left[ \frac{PL + 55}{100} \right] + \frac{PC}{2} \left[ \frac{PL + 55}{100} \right]$$

In order to allow for the supposed differences in the teaching of various subjects, Douglass suggested using subject coefficients. He further suggested that, since the number of pupils is obviously not a factor in subjects such as physical education, the number of pupils factor be omitted from the computation of subject load in these areas.

Since he believed that it was also obvious that the units of load in the junior high school, high school, and college are not comparable, he provided grade-level coefficients of 9, 10, and 11, respectively, to correct for the alleged differences in load at these levels.

This formula has had considerable vogue. Probably much of its popularity has resulted from appreciation of the relatively large number of teaching-load factors considered in computing load by this formula: class periods, number of pupils, period length, subjects taught, grade level, duplicate sections, and periods spent in out-of-class activities.

In spite of its popularity and relatively large number of factors it considers, this formula is open to criticism. As Douglass himself states, it is

<sup>1</sup>TL = units of teaching load per week; SC = subject coefficient; CP = class periods spent in classroom per week; Dup = number of class periods spent per week in classroom teaching of classes for which the preparation is very similar to that for some other section, not including the original section; NP = number of pupils in class per week; PC = number of class periods spent per week in supervision of study hall, student activities, teachers meetings, committee work, assisting in administrative or supervisory work or other co-operations; and PL = gross length in minutes of class period.

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based largely upon opinion and a few research studies and "does not measure all the factors of wear and strain on the teacher." Perhaps the most common criticism has been that computing the formula is difficult and time consuming. Douglass feels that this is not a fair criticism. His contention is borne out by Eells testimony that only two or three minutes is needed to compute the teaching load when the formula is set up as in the *Evaluative Criteria* (1940 Edition). This is not a long time when one considers the objective.

An accurate measure of teaching load would be worth much more than a few minutes computation per teacher, but this formula probably gives us no such measure. For instance the weight of "co-operations" is not correctly measured by PC. In the first place, the co-operations differ so greatly in the amount of time and energy needed to do them that they cannot be measured by a single index. Some provision for showing the effect of different co-operations must be made in any formula which is to measure the total teaching load accurately. In the second place, many co-operations are probably just as time-consuming and wearing as classes are. To give only half credit for such co-operations is patently unfair.

The use of subject coefficients is protested by many teachers. They claim that they are not given full credit for the loads they carry and other teachers receive more credit than they deserve. In this particular formula the differences in subject fields are made even greater by omitting credit for the number of pupils in certain subjects. Subject coefficients seem to cause artificially high, or low, load indices for certain subjects. Odell's study of load in Illinois high schools showed the greatest loads to be in English, science, and social science—all rated at 1.1—in contradiction of Jung's later time-study which indicates that agriculture teachers carry the heaviest load. Probably the findings of those using this formula reflect little more than the effect of the subject coefficient, not true differences in teaching load at all.

The use of duplicate sections in the formulae is also questionable. Some teachers claim that duplicate sections do not exist. Certainly no two classes are ever exactly the same. One can hardly expect a great reduction in preparation if provisions for individual differences are made. Probably duplicate sections reduce the teaching load only when old-fashioned recitation or lecture teaching is used. If that is the case, this portion of the formula is useful only as a measure of poor teachers and penalizes the better teachers.

Whether an additional twenty pupils is equivalent to an extra class is also questionable. Of course extra youngsters cause additional paper correcting and the like. On the other hand, probably not as much extra preparation is necessary for these pupils as for a duplicate section for which the formula does not give full credit.

Dissatisfied with this formula, Douglass revised his formula in 1950. In this revision he was aided by Christian W. Jung and Raymond Jung. The revised formula does not differ greatly from the original. The subject

coefficients have been replaced by subject-grade coefficients. In some cases subjects within fields now have separate coefficients;  $\frac{2 \text{ Dup}}{10}$  has been replaced by  $\frac{\text{Dup.}}{10}$ . This change was made because it was found that the new data indicated a duplicate section to be equivalent to nine tenths of an original section. The period length has been increased to 50 minutes and the weight of the co-curricular and co-operative duties has been made 20 per cent heavier. The formula<sup>2</sup> now is:

$$TL = SGC \left[ \frac{CP - \text{Dup.}}{10} + \frac{NP - 25CP}{100} \right] \left[ \frac{PL + 50}{100} \right] + \left[ .6PC \right] \left[ \frac{PL + 50}{100} \right]$$

In spite of the research put into this revision of the formula most of the objections to the old formula are applicable to the revision also. The computation is more difficult, and the objections to the use of coefficients for duplicate sections, co-operations, and subjects, are as valid as ever.

In 1925, Almack and Bursch presented a formula which was designed to take into account all of a teacher's activities. Since standards were not available, they suggested that the only way to arrive at a measurement of load was through a concensus of the faculty members concerning the relative difficulty of the various duties according to the following procedure:

1. Make up a list of all the school and community activities in which the teacher will be expected to share.
2. Take a common activity such as teaching thirty pupils English composition one hour (including marking the papers) as a standard.
3. Call the standard 1, and have the teacher weigh all other activities in comparison with the standard.
4. Average the weight assigned by the teachers to find what might be called the final subject weights.
5. Multiply the number of pupils a teacher has in every activity for which she (sic) is responsible by its subject weight, and by the number of periods per week. Call this the subject load.
6. Add all the subject loads for each teacher to find the teaching load.

The authors point out that in some instances the number of people is not pertinent and should be omitted from the computation. They also warn that weights resulting from this procedure are not true weights. The virtue of these weights lies not in their accuracy but in a faculty's developing them and accepting them. The advantage thus gained is to a measure offset by the amount of faculty labor necessary to find coefficients which, at best, will be inaccurate.

This formula is difficult to understand. The multiplying of the coefficient by the number of pupils by the number of class periods per week magnifies the differences between the loads. For instance, a daily class of

<sup>2</sup>Douglass, Hari L., and Kenneth L. Noble. "Revised Norms for High School Teaching Load." *THE BULLETIN of the NASSP*, Vol. 38, No. 260. (December 1954).

28 pupils in a subject bearing a coefficient of .9 gives a weekly index of 126 while a daily class of 30 pupils in a class bearing a coefficient of 1.0 gives an index of 150. Five classes per day gives an index of 630 for the former against an index of 750 for the latter. When one considers that in this example one is comparing a class of 28 pupils in history with a class of 30 pupils in English the index seems to indicate a greater difference than the facts warrant.

Brown and Fritzmeier added the number of daily preparations and the number of different fields to the Almack formulas. The formula then becomes:

1. Subject weight (or activity weight)  $\times$  length of period in hours  $\times$  number of recitations (or meetings) per week  $\times$  the number of pupils = weekly subject load.

2. Add weekly subject loads of each subject to find the total subject load.

3. Add to the total subject load the respective percentage increased difficulty as influenced by the number of daily preparations and the number of separate teaching fields if there is more than one of either.

The weights suggested are: for two preparations, 12 per cent; for three preparations, 22 per cent; for four preparations, 36 per cent; and for five preparations, 56 per cent. For two subject fields, 12 per cent; for three subject fields, 34 per cent; for four fields, 75 per cent; for five fields, 155 per cent. The weights were derived from estimates made by 20 Kansas State Teachers College professors.

Again we have a formula which is hard to interpret because multiplication in combining the factors makes the indices seem fantastic.

The corrections for number of preparations and for number of fields are hardly logical. The use of percentage distorts the load index. The correction for three preparations would be considerably larger (65 points assuming 50 minute periods and 1.0 subject coefficient) for the teacher teaching six periods than for the one teaching four periods. This seems hardly fair. The correction for three preparations should be the same for all teachers. Also illogical is the assumption that duplicate sections need not be prepared. Probably, since studies indicate that teaching in two fields causes no increase in load, no correction for teaching combinations is necessary except when a teacher is forced to teach outside his field.

An interesting approach to the problem of measuring teaching load has been proposed by Sand. He has discarded the single load index as inadequate and impractical since he feels that the value of a formula is to show at a glance the relationship of the various factors to each other and to standards used for comparative purposes. To accomplish this purpose he records six factors: (1) the number of pupil hours per week, (2) the number of class periods per week, (3) the number of minutes of preparation per week, (4) the number of duplicate preparations per week, (5) the number of minutes of non-recitational instructional activities per week, and (6) the number of minutes of non-instructional activities per week. For standards, Sand provides the median data provided by his time analyses of the activities of teachers in 28 schools. This

formula does not give an adequate basis by which to compare teacher loads because there is no measure of total load.

According to Ward, the only logical way to think of teaching load is in hours per week. Consequently, he has devised a simple formula for computing the teacher's weekly work week. It is:

1. Figure the time per week spent in classes, study halls, home rooms, and all the duties given a definite allotment on the schedule.
2. Allow about twenty minutes daily for each separate lesson preparation for the week.
3. Allow three minutes per pupil per class for grading tests and other written work.
4. Allow reasonable time for coaching, sponsoring, pupil conferences, or any other extra activities.
5. Find the sum and express it in hours per week.

This formula is easy to understand and fairly easy to compute. As Ward points out, the time allowances of items 2 and 3 may be varied to suit local situations or, if thought desirable, to provide differences in subject fields. Staff co-operation in determining the amount of time allowable for preparation, paper correcting, and other activities would eliminate criticism of the arbitrary value given to items 2 and 3, and the vagueness of item 4. As a measure of time this is an excellent formula.

Another formula based on clock hours is that prepared by a summer school class composed largely of principals under the supervision of Norman Frost. The formula<sup>8</sup> is:

$$TL = AH + PH + \frac{(EL)(PH)}{30} + \frac{(EG)(PH)}{16}$$

The basic principle of this formula seems sound enough but the details warrant some study. All of the allowances are based on insufficient data. One half of the classroom teaching hours is perhaps too small an allowance for preparational load. The allowance of one forth for duplicate sections, laboratories, and extracurricular activities cannot be justified. These activities do not all require the same time; some require about as much time as original sections. No valid reason exists for assuming that high-school classes should be smaller than junior high-school classes. How the extra grade allowance for secondary schools was arrived at is not explained.

<sup>8</sup>TL = teaching load expressed in clock hours; AH = assigned hours of duty per week; PH = preparation hours per week. It is assumed that for regular classroom teaching one half as much time is spent in preparing and correcting papers as in the actual conduct of the class. Persons in charge of teachers' meetings, assemblies, or home-room activities should receive the same allowance for preparation as for class work. For duplicate sections, laboratory periods, playground direction, coaching, and the like activities, the preparation is reduced to one fourth of the time; EL = exceptional load. The number of pupils more than 40 or less than 30 in elementary grades, more than 25 or less than 25 in junior high school, and more than 30 or less than 20 in senior high school. Similar adjustments should be made for playground work, home room, coaching, and the like; and EG = extra grades. This allowance is to be made when elementary teachers have more than one grade in the same room or when high-school teachers teach in a study hall or homeroom. Each 20 pupils or major fraction thereof is to be considered an extra grade.

In 1944 the Cincinnati public schools adopted the following teaching load formula:

1. Take the number of assigned periods per week of actual classroom teaching.
2. Add 1 if the teacher has a home room.
3. Add 1/2 of the number per week of study halls of 50 or fewer pupils.
4. Add 7/10 of the number per week of study halls of more than 50 pupils.
5. Add 1/2 the average weekly number of periods of other assigned duties in out-of-school time.
6. The sum is the score of the teacher.

This formula does not consider class size. Neither does it make adequate allowance for the differences in non-instructional duties. The additional allowance for large study halls is an interesting innovation which recognizes the strain concomitant with supervising large study halls.

Another interesting approach to the measurement of teaching load is the point system such as the one devised by the standards committee of Redford High School in Detroit. Each class which meets one period a day, five days a week is given a value of 10 points. All other activities are weighted against these activities using the following criteria.

1. Nervous energy expended (working with large groups of students, small groups, or no students).
2. Strain of producing results before the public.
3. Locale of activity (in the building or involving trips elsewhere).
4. Responsibility for another's property.
5. Time spent in preparation for, and in performance of, duty.

This plan is good. It allows for the evaluation of many factors and is relatively easy to compute once the activities have been assigned values. Almost any factor can be provided for in the assigning of point values for activities. Like other formulas using abstract units, however, point systems are less easily interpreted than formulas which express teaching load in clock hours. This is particularly bothersome in cases in which the local faculty has determined the point values since the weights do not represent true values and do not allow comparisons between schools. This is not a serious objection if the faculty accept the point values and if the values are open to continuous revision.

Pettit has proposed another type of point system which has much in its favor. This formula completely ignores subject matter difficulty on the grounds that this factor varies with individuals. Important factors such as average number of pupils, number of classes, extracurricular activities, and experience are included. The formula<sup>4</sup> is:

$$AC + (P \times 25) + (25EC)EX = TP$$

<sup>4</sup>A = average number of pupils he teaches per day; C = number of classes; P = number of preparations; EC = extracurricular activities and administrative duties; EX = experience; and TP = points of teaching load.

The formula allows for the weighting of the various factors. Tables of equivalent weighted values are provided for average number of pupils, experience, number of classes, and number of preparations. For instance when substituting in the formula a value of 60 is used for the average number of pupils although the actual average number of pupils is 45.

This formula has several merits. It provides for several factors and is relatively easy to understand. Among its faults are an over-emphasis on preparations and weightings which may or may not be valid.

Another variant of the point system is one proposed by the present writer. This formula attempts to show the wearing effect—the combined effect of the difficulty, the disagreeableness, and the mental, emotional, and physical strain—as well as the number of hours worked in the teaching load score. The method consists of three steps:

1. Determine the amount of time per week the teacher spends doing each activity which is part of his job.
2. Multiply the amount of time the teacher spends on each activity by a coefficient of wearing effect. This gives a point score for each activity.
3. Total the point scores of the activities to find the score of the entire teaching load.

This method has several points in its favor. It makes it possible to include both time and wearing effect in the estimating of teaching load; its flexibility allows for the individual differences among teachers which make the time and effort teachers spend on teaching activities vary so greatly; the computation is relatively simple. Furthermore it attempts to include the wearing effect of the teachers' activities, a factor neglected by other formulas. Although the coefficients of wearing effect provided need further refining, they represent the opinions of approximately 1,100 teachers and are reasonably valid.

This method also has some weaknesses. The scores are only relative. They do not give a definite work week like the 40 hour week of industry. Finding the time spent in the various activities is time consuming and depends upon the honesty and objectivity of the teachers. This task could be avoided by using the average times determined by one of the time studies, such as Jung's for instance.

The search for the perfect formula must go on. None of the formulas so far devised are entirely satisfactory. Some, like the Woody-Bergman formula, are so simple that they are incomplete; others, like the Douglass formulas, are rather difficult to compute. Many, like the Frost formula, are based on little objective data. Conflicting and incomplete data make the allowances in all the formulas questionable. In some instances, as in the Douglass formulas, the results of using the allowances may be downright misleading. In most of the formulas, the element of strain or wearing effect is not considered at all.

Probably the most satisfactory formula for any school system is one in which the allowances for the various factors are derived and agreed

upon by the local teachers. Although such formulas are of little value in comparing loads of different systems and are not so readily understood by the public, they have the advantage of being accepted and understood by the teachers themselves. Also such formulas reflect local conditions which the other formulas gloss over. Certainly, in a profession as taxing as teaching, the formula that is used should make some allowance for the strain or wearing effect of the various activities.

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## The Length of the High School Day

BURVIL H. GLENN

AS NEW understandings about education are developed, new methods of teaching provide pressures, and new subjects demand a place in the high school, the high-school principal becomes concerned about ways to include all of the necessary learning experiences in the school day. It is puzzling for the principal to decide what shall be the length of the class period; what is to be the length of the school day; when school should begin in the morning; and when classes should be dismissed in the afternoon? Many circumstances influence the decisions regarding these matters. The number of children enrolled in the school is a consideration. If students must be transported to and from school this will influence the decisions. The relationships of the high school to other schools of the district, to other schools of the area, and to social and economic conditions are factors also. The length of class periods and the number of periods of the school day help to control the beginning and closing hours of the school. Finally, the types of activities to be included in the school in the regular class periods, or through an "extra-curricular program" and the "activity period," must be considered.

To shed some light on the problem of what constitutes a desirable length for the school day in high schools, a study was made in the high schools of eight counties of western New York. The principal of each high school in these counties was asked to provide information about the hour for the beginning of the school day, when the first class period began, the length of class periods, and the time of closing of the last class. Certain other questions, which it was believed were related to the major ones about the length of the school day, were asked the principals. For example, they were asked if an activity was held in the regular school day, the frequency and length of this period, how co-curricular activities other than interscholastic events were made a part of the school day, and the enrollment and type of school.

Interest in the study and the significance of the problem was shown by the principal as they gave the information requested. More than ninety per cent of the high-school principals provided all of the information requested. The returns of this study show that the length of the regular school day ranges from six hours and one minute to seven hours and fifteen minutes, with a mean length of the school day being six hours.

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TABLE I:—LENGTH OF THE SCHOOL DAY OF HIGH SCHOOLS  
IN WESTERN NEW YORK, 1955.

Number of hours in the school day	Number of Schools
6:01 — 6:05	3
6:06 — 6:10	1
6:11 — 6:15	7
6:16 — 6:20	4
6:21 — 6:25	7
6:26 — 6:30	10
6:31 — 6:35	10
6:36 — 6:40	7
6:41 — 6:45	7
6:46 — 6:50	4
6:51 — 6:55	6
6:56 — 7:00	9
7:01 — 7:05	3
7:06 — 7:10	1
7:11 — 7:15	1
<b>TOTAL</b>	<b>80</b>

and thirty-six minutes. Table I which shows these data gives a rather clear picture of a school day of approximately six and one half hours as being most common in western New York. The fact that twenty school districts have high schools with daily sessions ranging in length from six hours and twenty-six minutes to six hours and thirty-six minutes attests to the popularity of a length of day within this range.

The number of class periods in the school day varied from six to nine in the eighty school districts participating in the study. Five of the high schools have six periods, twenty-two schools have seven periods, thirty-seven schools have eight periods, and fifteen schools have nine periods. One high school reported having either seven or eight periods, as its schedule allowed. Thus, the eight-period school day is most common in the eighty high schools, with the seven-period day being the next most used type.

One of the factors bearing on the number of periods in the school day and the length of the class period in the state of New York is a regulation of the commissioner of education. This states that the minimum length of a recitation period shall be forty minutes and the number of daily periods of classroom instruction shall not exceed five for any teacher. Effects of this regulation were seen in the results of this study. No high school reported regular class periods with lengths of time of less than forty minutes. The length of the periods ranged from forty minutes to fifty-six minutes, with a mean length of forty-six and seven-tenths minutes. Table II shows that more than one-half of the school districts have class periods of less than forty five minutes long and only two districts have what might be termed "one-hour" periods.

TABLE II.—LENGTH OF CLASS PERIODS IN HIGH SCHOOLS  
OF WESTERN NEW YORK, 1955

<i>Number of minutes</i>	<i>Number of Schools</i>
-40	14
41-42	18
43-44	11
45-46	18
47-48	4
49-50	11
51-52	2
53-54	1
55-56	1
<b>TOTAL</b>	<b>80</b>

The principals of the high schools studied believed that several major problems seemed to stem from class periods which were too short. These do not seem to provide enough time for laboratory exercises or for special class activities in home economics, art, industrial arts, physical education, or music. Also, in the high schools having short periods, there seemed to be too many study halls and too little opportunity for supervised study in the classroom. On the other hand, when class periods are too long, the principals found that there are fewer periods in the school day and this tends to limit the number of elective subjects which can be offered by the school or chosen by students. Also, it seemed apparent to the principals that teachers do not understand how to use longer periods most effectively.

All extra-curricular activities, other than interscholastic sports, are held in the regular school day of seven of the eighty schools. In nine high schools all of these activities are held after school. In general, the tendency seemed to be to hold part of the activities during the school day and part of them after school. High schools of large cities, or suburban to large cities, usually held extra-curricular activities after the regular school day. Only eight school districts reported that no activities were held during the regular school day, and only one reported that none were held after school. The use of an activity period in the regular school day to care for school activities was reported by fifty-nine school districts. Twenty high schools indicated that all school extra-curricular activities were scheduled in the activity period and thirty-seven schools used this period to care for part of the school activities. An interesting point in the study was that, of the fifteen schools that have class periods of forty-nine minutes or longer, one half have no activity period.

In the majority of the fifty-nine schools reporting an activity period this period was held daily. However, five high schools held the period only one day each week. In four schools the activity period was held two days each week, one school held it three times a week, three schools held

it four times each week, and two schools reported that the frequency of the period was indefinite.

Activity periods range in length of time from twenty-five minutes to sixty-two minutes, with a mean length of forty-three and five-tenths minutes. In most of the high schools the length of the period ranged from thirty-nine minutes to fifty minutes in length. Eleven of the schools provide for the activity period in the first daily period. Thirty of the schools have arrangements for it in the last school period. Two of the schools provide for the activity period to be between 12:00 and 1:00 P. M. It is of interest to note that eight of the fifteen high schools reporting a school day of nine periods use the last periods as an activity period.

Thus, it appears that high-school principals of western New York are using a school day of between six hours and seven and one-half hours as the desirable length of the day. The range of the number of class periods is from six to nine, with an eight-period day as the most common. The length of class periods varies from forty minutes to fifty-six minutes, although most of the high schools have class periods shorter than forty-five minutes in length.

In order to provide for extra-curricular activities, an "activity period" is included in the school day of most of the high schools. This period, however, provides for only part of the extra-curricular activities of most schools. Some school activities are carried on after the regular school day in most of the schools. The most popular time for scheduling the activity period is the last period of the day.

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## In-service Education— Whose Responsibility?

KENNETH E. BROWN

IT SEEMS that many of our educational discussions and workshops begin with goals or purposes. Perhaps it will give us a feeling of familiarity and security if we begin with the purposes of in-service education. Why have an in-service education program? What are the purposes of an in-service education? Of course, I am sure that we will agree that such programs are for the benefit of all who take part and the important contribution is the one that reflects itself in the improvement of instruction in the classroom. No administrator feels that his school is perfect; no teacher is ever satisfied with his presentations. We all strive through in-service education for better methods and techniques. But why is in-service education especially important now? Why in-service education *now*?

On the horizon loom seven to eight-million high school pupils in the face of a shortage of teachers. We are told that to maintain the present pupil-teacher ratio one half of all college graduates for the next ten years must enter teaching. In the past, only about one fifth of the graduates have become teachers. To think that education will receive half the graduates is certainly unrealistic.

What happens when we have a teacher shortage? Poorly qualified teachers are employed, content of the curriculum is examined to see if classes can be eliminated, and classes become larger. These are the results of teacher shortages. The sub-standard teacher may be a liberal arts college graduate, a college junior, or a housewife who is willing to devote time to a most worthy cause; in all cases they will need in-service education.

New schools are required. In Dallas alone, a new school will be opened each month for the next five years. If these new staffs function as a team, in-service education will be required.

Inroads have been made into the 8-4 system by different types of organizations. New junior high schools are organized. The transition of teachers from elementary to junior high school or from the senior high school to the junior high school necessitates a sound program of in-service education.

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The national demand for more scientific personnel, mingled with charges that our high school product is of low quality, should cause teachers to re-evaluate teaching content and procedures. Is there dead wood that should be removed from our present courses? Have new advances in technology affected the content of the high school courses? The competition by all areas of learning for a place in an over-crowded curriculum during a teacher shortage should cause all teachers to re-study the value of the experiences they are giving pupils in their classes. An in-service education program is especially important now.

#### WHO STARTS THE IN-SERVICE PROGRAM?

Who is responsible for starting an in-service program? The administrator is responsible for initiating the program just as he is responsible for providing a place for the teachers to eat their lunch. It would be of little value to provide a place for teachers to eat if they didn't care for physical nourishment; likewise, providing for educational nourishment is ineffective if the teachers are without an appetite. If the administrator does not provide a place for teachers to have lunch, it isn't long before a teacher requests it. If appropriate conditions are not provided for the teacher to be refreshed with educational nourishment, should she sit contently by and starve?

If physical nourishment is desired, she may join other teachers in the snack bar across the street for a hot dog and cup of coffee, or her duties may call her to the school cafeteria for a plate of beans and a coke, or alone she may munch cheese and crackers in her classroom, but, wherever, it is, she will insist on her right to physical nourishment. Doesn't she have the same right and responsibility to insist on mental nourishment.

#### KIND OF IN-SERVICE EDUCATION

What kind of in-service education should it be? The in-service education might be less nourishing than the plate of beans and a lot less appetizing. Perhaps this type of education has dulled the educational appetites of some teachers. We do not prescribe the same nourishment for all persons. Should we not expect variety in the educational needs of teachers?

The type of in-service education should be determined by the teacher and the school. It may not be desirable nor effective for all teachers to work on courses of study. New teachers might find it more profitable to study ways of learning quickly about the pupils, the parents, and the community. A teacher just transferred from a senior high school to a junior high school may feel frustrated by the adolescent activities of her pupils. A college course or conferences with other teachers on child growth and development might be helpful. For the teacher who returns to the classroom after several years of devotion to the duties of a housewife, a refresher workshop on methods of instruction might bring good returns.

The teacher of long experience—the master teacher—has a special re-

sponsibility. She is called upon to lead the way in integrating these individuals into a team and, in addition, there will be certain procedures she will desire to develop further. There will be the suggestion, on the one hand, that greater emphasis should be put on subject matter and, on the other hand, the advice that the pupils be taught to live together.

In the face of increased pressures, the experienced, well-trained, teachers, will be expected to lead in developing ways of teaching large classes. What are the duties that can be delegated to a teacher's aide? (One survey of a certain group of teachers found that one-half the time at school was spent in non-teaching activities.) How can multi-sensory aids be used in instructing large groups? What are the potentialities of closed circuit TV? Answers to these questions will be expected of master teachers. The new teachers, the transfer teachers, and the master teachers will all need in-service education. The kind of in-service education needed will be as varied as the personalities and backgrounds of the teachers. It is the responsibility of the teachers and administrators as individuals and as a group to provide the in-service education to fill these many needs.

What form should the in-service education take? Again this depends on the needs of the staff. The needs of some teachers might be best met through a college correspondence course. I recently received a letter from a frustrated teacher who had received no academic training in physics, yet he had been scheduled to teach a course in physics. A correspondence course in the subject, plus a colleague who offered to help with troublesome assignments, seemed to relieve some of the tension.

The workshop might be a type of organization that would lend itself readily to effective in-service education for some teachers. Summer workshops, pre-school and post-school workshops are becoming popular.

Regular departmental meetings permit an intensive study of the content of the high-school courses. It may be that for some of the teachers this is most important.

Group and individual study of professional literature may be the form that in-service education should take. State journals have a responsibility for in-service education which they have accepted. In six state journals which he examined, Robert R. Leeper<sup>1</sup> found that nearly one third of the space was devoted to basic professional content.

School or individual experimentation is a desirable channel for some types of teacher education. However, few schools are actively engaged in planned curriculum experimentation on a scientific basis.

The in-service education may be through college courses, workshops, conferences, departmental meetings, faculty meetings, small group study and individual and school experimentation. The form of in-service education should be determined by those involved in the light of the goals they have selected.

<sup>1</sup>Leeper, Robert R. "Professional Content of Selected State Education Association Journals." Ed.D. Project Report, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York, New York, 1950. 394 pp.

### EVALUATION

One of the tragedies of some in-service programs is the failure to evaluate the activities. After adopting a diet, one usually checks the results frequently. Has he gained weight? Has he lost weight? The educational growth of the teachers should be evaluated. What changes took place in the teachers? Most important of all—what changes took place in the pupils? If we can detect no improvement, should we continue with the same procedure, blissfully hoping for a miracle? Who has the responsibility to evaluate the in-service program? Each person who was involved is obligated to evaluate the results in terms of the purposes that the group determined for the project.

### SUMMARY

The prospect for a critical shortage of teachers, reassignment of many teachers due to new buildings, an increase in junior and six-year high schools, and the demand by industry and colleges for more and better instruction in the high school has caused the need for in-service education to stand out in bold relief. The new teacher, the transferred teacher, the master teacher have at least one thing in common—a need for in-service education. The inevitable large classes of tomorrow call for new methods, new techniques, perhaps teacher assistants. The need to develop additional scientific manpower requires a re-study of the curriculum content. The form that the in-service program takes depends upon the needs of the teachers and the school. It is the responsibility of all persons concerned with the instruction of the pupils to develop an in-service program that will attack the problems determined by the staff to be of high priority. No in-service program is complete without provisions for an evaluation in terms of changes that took place in the pupils. The responsibility for improvement in education—in-service education—does not fall solely on the administrator, the curriculum director, state supervisor or any group of persons. It is the responsibility of each of us.

### CHILD-LABOR STANDARDS

THE U. S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Standards, Washington 25, D. C., has prepared a packet of material which will help persons write a speech, answer misleading "letters to the editor," and build up understanding of the purposes and the provisions of the child labor laws and their benefits to youth. People often have the impression that the laws are more restrictive than they are. The Labor Department's materials show the values of good child labor laws, and how they strike a balance between protection and opportunity.

# The Teacher and the Community

J. RUSSELL MORRIS

I HAVE been prompted to write this article as a result of the recent observations made by first-year graduates in teaching who have been trained at Chico State College. First-year teachers were asked to suggest ways in which teachers could become a more vital part of the community in their first year of teaching.

The following is a compilation of ideas and suggestions which should apply to all teachers, inexperienced, as well as experienced, members of the teaching profession.

1. *Study the School and the Community.* If you understand what is going on in your community, its mores and customs, factions and cleavages, needs and values, you will be in the driver's seat and better able to make intelligent adjustments. It is well to know community "causes" and their leaders, the important business and political figures, occupations and prejudices of the school board members, causes of previous friction between town and school, community blocs which support purposes similar or antagonistic to the school, and anything else that might enter into the picture. *Know your community.*

2. *Make a wide variety of social contacts.* Get to know people of different ages, races, nationalities, classes, political and religious philosophies. We must learn to recognize human differences as both normal and desirable in a democracy or a democratic community. We need to do all we can to help lessen the social distance between teachers and other community groups. *Know your people.*

3. *Share common interests with a wide circle of friends.* Get outside of the teaching profession. Deliberately cultivate personal friendship with people of divergent backgrounds but with common civic and social concerns. *Widen your friendships—eliminate social frustration.*

4. *Acquaint yourself with community agencies and their leaders.* Every teacher should understand the work of the many and varied community agencies. Everything from social welfare to the farm granges and labor organizations. Do all you can to break down that inertia and prejudice that has kept many of our teachers from attending or visiting such agencies. Invariably, the face-to-face meetings prove of much interest and stimulation, and contribute immeasurably to the teacher's breadth of experience; this is good.

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5. *Know your state and regional resources.* State and national officials, department of education personnel, extension workers, and medical and research workers are available to most communities. *Use them.* It goes without saying that they can be of much help to teachers.

6. *Attend public meetings in the community.* Talk with people, introduce yourself, express your appreciation of what others do for community welfare. *If you can appear in public and do it well, you are all set.*

7. *Participation in studying community needs and problems.* Especially those which have to do with the education of boys and girls. Do all you can to help groups formulate and achieve civic purposes. *Work with others.*

8. *Be well versed in objective thinking.* You must be familiar with the techniques of objective thinking if you are to handle controversial issues both in and out of the classroom. If you do not, you will find yourself in the proverbial "hot seat." Remain always as objective as is possible.

9. *Make a careful study and analysis of the age group you are teaching.* Visit students in their homes, enter into their recreational life, observe them in public places and in work situations. *Know your students.*

10. *Become a legal resident of the community.* Vote in all of the elections. Make a real effort to better understand local community problems and issues, and be prepared to exert your influence as well as to vote intelligently. *Be a real citizen.*

Too often the teacher is a "stranger" in the community, putting down no lasting roots, cherishing academic interests which are largely remote from the life and needs of the present, and failing to participate responsibly in the co-operative efforts of the lay group. Is it any wonder, then, that such a teacher remains a "stranger" in the community? Until you can be a community "friend" you will never be a *true teacher to youth.*

It might be well for all teachers to ponder seriously the suggestions of these first-year teachers as to how we may all become more vital in the communities in which we teach and live.

## Improving Instruction Through Inter-visitation

R. MEADE GUY

MANY of us in the field of education at least partially follow Davy Crockett's advice. But instead of being sure we are right and then going ahead, we often make sure we are right and then fail to go ahead. We fall prey to that educational nemesis, the lengthy wait, which characterizes trying the "new" or the "different" in educational thought. There is little need to belabor this point; but if we consider the reaction of educators in general, there is a feeling of inadequacy and a lack of understanding enshrouding this vital service which we call supervision.

Supervision is a service designed to improve instruction, and any procedure which will help to accomplish this objective is certainly worthy of consideration. Without doubt there is a crying need for improving instruction in our public schools. This fact is easily substantiated from the results of voluminous studies showing the reactions of teachers and administrators relative to the inadequacy of supervision in our schools.

It is not necessary that teachers and administrators be reminded of the need for constantly striving toward an improved instructional program. But we must not lose sight of the fact that our colleges and universities cannot and should not be expected to carry out the complete, over-all education of teachers. No college can provide a terminal course in education. You who are reading this article as interested fellow workers realize that we must find means for providing more and better opportunities for all who are concerned with the instructional program to improve themselves. This challenge may be satisfactorily and rewardingly met through a sound, well-planned program of in-service training.

Inter-visitation is only one of a multitude of supervisory procedures which can help us provide a stronger, more effective in-service program, thus leading to an improved teaching-learning situation in the classroom.

Some readers will be skeptical of the term inter-visitation. Such misgivings are probably the results of experiences in the past. Experiences often condition the responses of educators, causing them to be somewhat skeptical of a term which may seem trite, meaningless, or in some cases appear to be a stereotype. Previous experiences may cause some members of the teaching profession to approach anything new or slightly different with extreme caution. As a result of this quite natural attitude, it is frequently difficult to induce educational leaders to work with new ideas and techniques.

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As would be expected logically, there are a number of questions concerning inter-visitation which need to be answered. What is inter-visitation? What results can it give? What are some of the difficulties in connection with initiating such a plan? How can instruction be improved through inter-visitation? These questions need careful, thoughtful consideration.

In an article on teacher inter-visitation, (*School Executive*, October, 1953) N. J. Nelson has defined the term as "an exchange of ideas and techniques that will improve the conditions surrounding learning and pupil growth."

Inter-visitation refers to the visiting of a teacher within another school or school system or sometimes within his own school. It implies gain on the part of both the teacher who is visited and the visiting teacher. Visits may be made on a reciprocating or non-reciprocating basis. The visitor may be someone new to the profession, someone new to a particular assignment, or a person of experience. All of these can benefit from an opportunity to observe what is being done in other classrooms.

If we are to judge by the dearth of literature and the relatively small number of school systems or individual schools employing this supervisory procedure, we will realize that technique is not widely utilized. In fact, in many areas it has not gained recognition as a supervisory method of real merit. Perhaps one reason may be that inter-visitation has, in instances, been confused with observation classes or demonstration teaching. It is not the same old method dressed up and camouflaged with a new name. Although observation classes and demonstration teaching have long been used as supervisory methods in many school systems throughout America, there is evidence that in general these methods are not highly effective in improving classroom instruction.

Visitation and observation are regarded as important phases of the in-service education program in many localities, but the idea of inter-visitation has sometimes not been developed thoughtfully, in that no clear distinction is made between visitation and observation.

Many benefits may be derived not only from visiting in a particular grade or subject matter area, but also from visiting in grades above and below one's particular grade assignment. This may involve visits to feeder schools, receiving schools, or both. Such visits inevitably help to develop awareness of the necessary continuity of the educational program and of the need for vertical articulation within a particular school system. Also, visits in different subject matter areas in secondary schools provide an excellent chance to obtain an over-all view of the complete school program. Understandings gained from such visits can prove valuable in helping the teacher to correlate and integrate his work with that of other teachers and to break down the subject matter barriers.

Inter-visitation seems to offer numerous advantages over either the observation class or demonstration teaching. Some of the more obvious advantages of this method are:

1. Eliminates to a large degree the artificiality of the teaching situation
2. Relieves tensions and concern on part of host teacher
3. Creates a desirable situation for improving relations among teachers
4. Helps visiting teacher, especially the new teacher, feel that he is on same level with host teacher
5. Provides logical, workable plan for assisting teachers in gaining knowledge of techniques new to them and for obtaining new ideas and insights for improving instruction

In the case of something relatively unfamiliar, evaluation becomes a rather difficult problem. We must judge the success of an undertaking in terms of all the results obtained. Let us consider some outcomes which could result from the wise use of inter-visitation:

1. New techniques and ideas developed
2. Guidance and counseling of teachers on same level
3. Better picture of over-all school program (breaking down of subject matter barriers)
4. Improved vertical articulation
5. More self-confidence on part of teachers
6. Increased feeling of responsibility for improving instruction on part of teachers and administrators
7. Better relations among faculty members
8. A more co-operative attack on school problems
9. Development of real, worthwhile opportunities for teachers to participate in improving instruction
10. Better understanding of problems and positions of other teachers in system

If it is to be effective in providing any or all of the results related above, inter-visitation cannot be used as a check-up system. Care must be exercised to assure that no stigma is attached to the term. Teachers and administrators should not be carried too rapidly into this program without careful planning and co-operative study.

Constructive criticism which leads to improvement on the part of both participants should be encouraged, and each visit should be immediately followed by a conference between the teachers involved. Only when this procedure is employed as one method of helping the classroom teacher do a better job, and only when it is understood and desired by the teacher, will it serve its purpose.

Ordinarily, the principal of a school would be expected to provide leadership in developing a sound supervisory program and would play an important role in helping to arrange for inter-visitation. Some of the administrative problems requiring his special attention are:

1. Receiving approval of policy-making group
2. Allotting time for visits
3. Scheduling visits
4. Establishing visiting agreement with other schools
5. Arranging for substitute teachers
6. Handling public relations connected with a new undertaking

In addition to these, the following problems point to difficulties and suggest reasons as to why inter-visitation has not been extensively used:

1. Lack of funds
2. Existing practices and policies do not provide for, or do not permit, such a procedure
3. Experiences with demonstration teaching and observation classes have prejudiced teachers
4. Hesitancy on part of teachers and administrators in trying something new
5. Uncertainty because of fear of adverse reactions, teacher conflict, or criticism
6. Failure to realize possibility of using this procedure for improving instruction
7. No feeling of responsibility for supervisory program on part of principal
8. "Defeatist" attitude that prevails among some members of the profession
9. No feeling of freedom to develop this method (or any other method) on part of teacher
10. Lack of interest or concern
11. Misunderstanding as to what inter-visitation is, and failure to understand its purposes

In organizing and planning for inter-visitation, a committee from each school might function satisfactorily to help set up objectives and work with the principal on problems relative to the arranging of visits. This committee might also submit recommendations, subject to the approval of those participating, for the procedure to be established for the visit itself.

It would be more desirable if the idea of inter-visitation could originate at the classroom level, because, after all, the teachers must realize a need for this type of in-service training and should possess a desire to improve their teaching. Since, in actual practice, instruction can be improved only by the classroom teacher, it is logical that a beneficial program of improvement must of necessity be developed and carried out co-operatively by teachers and supervisors (principals, supervisors, or superintendents, as the case may be) working toward common goals.

As we consider the types of visits which might be used, at least four definite types come to mind. Each has its place in the over-all program.

1. Visit made on invitation—This visit is made to a classroom only after the host teacher has invited another teacher to see some phase of work which he and his class are engaged in at that particular time.

2. Pre-planned visit—In this visit the planning may be done by the two teachers involved or it may also include the supervisor. Through pre-planning a visit, both teachers benefit more because each knows better what to expect from the other.

3. Visit made on request—This differs from the invitational visit in that here a teacher finds the need for visiting another teacher at work, in order to help him improve his teaching. The visitor requests an opportunity to see someone else in a real teaching situation which may help him with his particular problems.

4. Impromptu visit—There are times when a teacher may "drop in" unannounced and benefit from seeing another teacher at work. For obvious reasons

this is the least desirable of the four methods and should be used only with utmost caution.

In retrospect let us look at some of the difficulties in initiating a plan of inter-visitation. Eleven specific reasons have been listed in addition to the six reasons of an administrative nature. All these cannot be examined separately, but a few of the most common need careful scrutiny: lack of funds; no established policy concerning the practice; unpleasant experiences with other in-service procedures; and the fact that the idea of using this method has not occurred in some areas.

When examined carefully, many of the reasons listed take on the appearance of being excuses rather than valid reasons. The first reason, lack of funds, can be overcome by scheduling visits in such a manner that several teachers are not away on the same day. Such an arrangement allows other teachers to assist in taking care of the students of the visiting teacher, or the principal may substitute for some of his teachers from time to time. There is always the possibility that requesting the policy-making group to approve this practice and pointing out the value of such a plan will cause it to be financed on a budgetary basis. In many systems where observation classes are held, provision is made for employing substitutes for the teachers attending these meetings. Similar arrangements can be made for visiting on an individual basis.

What about experiences which have caused teachers to be hesitant about entering into an in-service program? This hesitancy can present a real problem, but there will be many teachers in any system who will voluntarily and willingly enter into this undertaking through need, curiosity, or a desire to co-operate. It is extremely important that the program be made indispensable for them in order that others might be favorably impressed with what they see and hear about it. In this way it will not be necessary to require anyone to participate. By no means should a person be forced into this plan before he is ready to take part. Requiring participation is certainly not to be condoned.

We could continue to invalidate the excuses offered as reasons for failure to make a beginning in a program of this type, but the above examples will suffice. The point is simply this: Something *can* be done about improving supervision and it can have a simple, modest, inexpensive start which can result in a pleasant, rewarding endeavor for all concerned.

It is unlikely that there are any insurmountable obstacles standing in the way to foil attempts at initiating a plan for inter-visitation. Certainly the results to be obtained from such a plan heavily outweigh the difficulties.

While inter-visitation is only one phase of the over-all supervisory program, it is one which is capable of earning a significant place among good, sound supervisory procedures. It is a method which has tremendous possibilities, if fully explored and courageously developed. It is not offered as a panacea for all the ills of supervision. Nor should it be taken, as some in-service procedures are, like a bad dose of medicine. Inter-visitation can serve as a shot in the arm for the in-service program which is rundown, anemic, and suffering from malnutrition.

## Evaluation of Teaching

LESTER S. VANDER WERF

AT A recent educational conference a school board member said, "In school business everyone gets the same salary, the "chucklehead" and the "artist-teacher." Nowhere else in our society is this true." His concern apparently is shared by many laymen everywhere and to that extent must be taken seriously. The man's facts, however, are true only in part; for, except for promotion from class to class, governmental positions are singularly equivalent from department to department, and, at the policy or executive level, little if any flexibility operates to provide for merit incentives. In medicine there exists a noteworthy stability of fee within a category in a specific geographical area. It could be suggested to the celebrated surgeon that his variability of fee with the income of the patient looks like a merit system in reverse. In substance, teachers have this kind of built-in merit plan among communities ranging widely in wealth. While no onerous comparison is intended in pointing out that labor, too, operates on the principle of equivalency, one is impressed with the long and bitter struggle to attain it. Collective bargaining probably will not be thrust lightly aside.

These points superficially suggest the social context within which teachers now attempt to fashion for themselves some design of respectability among their compatriots. Before getting to the meat subsumed in the title above, one must, in my opinion, make the following assumptions, standing granite-like in their strength.

1. Teachers are being evaluated with or without relationship to salary.
2. Teachers, some of whom may be threatened by assumption 1, are evaluating their students.
3. Learning, the teacher's stock-in-trade, is at least as complex as any other process in which human beings are involved; it lies, in fact, at the heart of any attempt to build a consistent system of psychology.
4. In spite of all desire, teaching is not now a profession.
5. There is no such thing as objective objectivity; there is only subjective objectivity, manifested in its highest form with relation to people by rather incredible degrees of reliability when a group of persons is willing to pay the price of modifying their individual perceptions.

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An address given at the Annual Luncheon of the House of Delegates of the Massachusetts Teachers Association by Lester S. Vander Werf, Dean of the College of Education at Northeastern University, Boston, Massachusetts.

6. Teachers vary in their abilities, personalities and general effectiveness in carrying out their duties.
7. The significance of the individual person, coming close as it does to being the ultimate value in our society, should in part be recognized by earned rewards.

In one way or another these may be related; at least they must be reconciled. Such reconciliation may be possible in a more or less complete way by answering three basic questions.

The first of these is, *what is being evaluated?* The one thousand-plus studies that have been done on teacher competence over the years have brought to light some interesting items. For example, did you know that

- a. Teachers from larger families were more autocratic than teachers from small families.
- b. Elementary teachers have generally more positive attitudes than secondary teachers.
- c. Elementary teachers who attend large universities tend to be less subject-centered in their viewpoint than graduates of state teachers colleges.
- d. Teachers who are married or who have been married and separated are more understanding than single teachers.
- e. Teachers who have submitted to psycho-therapy are more understanding than those who have not.
- f. Unmarried teachers of high school English and social studies are more understanding than married teachers of other subjects.
- g. The most stimulating teachers seem to be about 35 years of age as compared to 47 for those who are less stimulating.
- h. Teachers between 5 and 10 years of experience seem to be more understanding and democratic than those with more or less experience.

Now those with undisciplined imaginations could have a field day rollicking among these tempting generalizations. But let it be said immediately that nearly all experts agree that the most direct kind of evidence on effective teaching is the growth that takes place in the learning of one's students. Yet attempts to line up such evidence have been shot through poor research design and/or shoddy statistics. In fact, a leading research group, after much deliberation, concluded this was indeed ground where angels should fear to tread. We are all relatively safe, therefore, at least temporarily.

But wait a moment. If learning is difficult of objective measurement, does this mean that we cannot tell when students learn? Obviously not, for teachers' shop talk is full of such glitter as "These kids simply refuse to learn"; or "My 'A' group whipped through those problems today"; or "What can you expect with parents like that"; or "Gee, what satisfaction, seeing these youngsters move ahead." Now all of these verbalisms are judgments based on some kind of evidence. They cue us to a possible ray of hope. For, is it not reasonable that if desirable learning conditions are

present, and therefore observable, learning is going on? Why then do we not capitalize on this premise?

In my opinion, we do not for three reasons. *First*, we have a mistaken idea about authority. Most of us have grown up with varying degrees of autocracy in our nervous systems and fail to see that the only democratic authority worth its salt is, not in the person, but in the situation. May I suggest some wonderful moments of insight to be gained from reflection on this principle.

*Second*, most of us are more concerned with our status in a power structure than with children. Anyone desiring to know the conditions in his school will find the price of investigation no bargain, either in time or energy. We are too content to pass off a low rating on a perceptive question, or a high one on the latest quote glibly gleaned from the current journal.

*Third*, we do not agree on what the conditions of learning are. In my opinion this is sheer professional ignorance. The principles are available with a little study but until we all know them—no—understand them, we have no more stability as professional people than a thread in a Massachusetts blizzard in March.

#### TEACHER GROWTH

Much of the writing now being done has suggested that it is really teacher growth which is the important item to be appraised. One writer reports that when presented with the challenge to participate in procedures to assess their competence and growth, a staff went through a period of such fervid activity that he needed several months to catch up. Without being facetious I am pressed to say that this sounds like hypomania by injection. For growth is a subtle, often evasive process, rooted in personality patterns, most facets of which are present when a teacher first assumes his responsibility. Further, growth is not necessarily related to external manipulations by supervisors. To state this differently, direct appraisal of strengths and weaknesses by a supervisor is apt to be at best misunderstood by virtue of the teacher's ego-involvement. Before authentic growth can take place, aside from the normal proclivities inherent in all of us under certain conditions, the perceptions of the person must change. One can hardly expect to harvest this kind of growth upon seeds of distrust, duplicity, or autocracy.

Normally, growth in teachers can be encouraged only in atmosphere of freedom to learn and inquire, by the behavior of stimulating leadership, and in co-operative attacks upon problems of mutual and significant concern.

Some people today are advocating an assessment of teachers on a series of growth stages, for example, as a novice awaiting appointment to tenure, the second as a master of classroom learning and later as a contributor to the profession. It could be that teachers would tend to meet expectations of each level as desired. Surely such a plan does not imply neglect

of competence at stage two when attempting to meet requirements of stage three. Yet the assumption implicit in the organization, that these exemplify levels of maturity or desirable steps in professional growth, is not easily substantiated unless the accusation of trichotomizing is sufficiently answered. But since one must keep an open mind on these matters, school systems should be encouraged to try this program so the rest of us can profit from the experience.

#### WHO SHALL EVALUATE

The second major question is, *who shall evaluate?* Traditionally judgments have been made by supervisors, as several hundred studies show. Results from these are confusing, to say the least. To ask a hundred people to give the most important qualifications of a good teacher is almost like asking them to name their favorite pop tune. It may depend upon who one's favorite disc jockey is. May I interlard that to allow teacher evaluation to rest with a single person is to place too much power in the hands of many questionable people. Until such time as teaching really attains professional status, single appraisals should be avoided at all costs. To beg the question further, when we do become professional many of the problems about which we are concerned here will be obviated.

Placing, in the meantime, the responsibility in the hands of a group is no superficial undertaking. For to arrive at a workable consensus, with personal bias truncated at the classroom door, takes long, grinding hours, but can be done.

Some, seeing the multitude of teacher appraisal problems, have gone off into a corner to pray for deliverance by student evaluations. While students in general agree on general characteristics, they are most reliable in early adolescence, becoming decreasingly so as they move up or down the age scale. Further the qualities change rank quite decidedly with maturity, nobody knowing exactly their properly weighted relationships.

Two obviously neglected questions with respect to student evaluations deserve mention. The first is, what basic differences would appear in student appraisals in classrooms operating under teacher-centered procedures, as contrasted with classrooms depending heavily on teacher-pupil planning. It could be suggested that not only would kinds of responses by pupils be different, but that comparing the responses in one case with those in the other might indeed raise serious questions of philosophy, morale, and competence itself. The second question is, what should be the disposition of the student evaluations? It is conceivable that the teacher who can secure honest assessment by his students could profit considerably therefrom. Many teachers employ this means as an informal and continuing check on the balance among aspects of their programs. When, however, these are turned over to superiors, complications are invited.

Thus people have more recently come to the view that teachers themselves may be the best judge of themselves. While up to a point this is

both democratic and surely worthy of careful study and encouragement, it is doubtful if school boards who are wary of automatic increments would consider this a satisfactory solution. Most experts agree that all schemes whose purpose it is to appraise teachers must involve, from the beginning, planning by teachers—amongst others—to be at all effective. Many go even further, namely, that any final or official evaluation must be agreed upon by a teacher in conference with a superior. Apparently this has worked successfully in a number of instances.

A fourth channel, old in higher education and used in some provocative respects in business, is evaluation by peers, that is, teachers evaluating teachers. In colleges this procedure is often the basis of promotion, if not salary increments, and has much to recommend it. Whether it could function with equal effectiveness for public school teachers, however, is questionable. Too often teachers are looked upon as servants and therefore are subject to public accounting, if not whims.

Yet the recent emphasis on developing new Codes of Ethics implies some new horizons of professional responsibility. How, for example, can a staff of teachers support a Code which specifies certain kinds of obligations to pupils, the profession et al, without the further willingness to maintain respectable adherence to its principals, even to the place, if need be, of recommending dissolution of contracts?

Let us take a hypothetical case of the teacher who refuses for several years to participate in any in-service program at her disposal. She constantly refers to her pupils as "brats." Surely her colleagues could be accused of neglect if they did not at least investigate the case, and, having reached the conclusion that this person was unfit to teach, did not recommend that her services be terminated. Or again, a vacancy occurs at any level; is it not professional for teachers to request that they be allowed to participate in setting up specifications for the position, to help screen candidates and make recommendations for appointment?

An interesting and potentially exciting venture is to have a public school system set up a long-term project employing self-evaluation and evaluation by students, supervisors, and peers. It would, of course, be desirable to use the same criteria in each case from the four points of view, testing the hypothesis, if you please, that high agreement can be reached under conditions of maximum care and study. One would not hesitate, however, to warn that much time and many frustrations would be involved.

A more radical departure would be for the Massachusetts Teachers Association to organize teams of professional evaluators, moving at intervals across the state where desired, to make recommendations at crucial points in a teacher's tenure. Such a step would call for respected professional people whose determination to arrive at a highly functioning reliability would be paramount. A special advantage is the relief of teachers' superiors from being involved in risky judgments. On the other hand, since

personnel administration ranks high on any administrator's list of priorities, one could question the desirability of dichotomizing functions.

As I see it, the most telling argument against all kinds of formal evaluations is the danger of conformity. Those being evaluated, at any level, soon delineate the pattern of expectations. And if there is anything with which education is already too saturated, it is people who are devoid of individuality, who sell their personalities to the organized system which employs them. Businessmen who advocate merit systems for teachers might well take a good look at the appraisals made by their research scientists of the conditions under which they work. With a few exceptions, most scientists apparently believe that more significant advances would be forthcoming if they had the freedom normally found in universities. Social scientists tell us that as our institutions become more highly centralized (and few apparently escape the forces) manipulations of people become less material and more psychological. Under these circumstances it becomes increasingly difficult to be experimental and creative on the job. And yet these qualities are highly prized by teachers and leaders everywhere. Perhaps this is one of the factors that led Elmer Davis to label our age as one of Double-Think. Our actions often belie our expressions, deliberately. So, where evaluations are in order, preserve at any cost the privilege of being different. For if teachers are not free, how can freedom be made real to boys and girls?

#### SHOULD EVALUATION BE RELATED TO SALARY?

The third question is *should evaluation be related to salary?* May I express my indebtedness to Ray Pitkin for the materials collected on merit systems available to all of us, and to his lead article in the March issue of the *Massachusetts Teacher*. These save me from summarizing the arguments for and against merit rating.

May I say, then, as bluntly as I can, that I favor a salary schedule based on minimums and maximums and regular increments between and, incidentally, higher than any yet proposed. There are two reasons. (1) If a teacher is worth keeping, he is worth paying and (2) anyone is entitled to know what his potential earnings are. Having said that, no inconsistency creeps in when a person is moved more quickly up the schedule by double or triple increments or moves beyond the maximum. Because no one will deny that there are poor teachers and perhaps many average ones, whatever these are, we shall continue to meet resistance to arbitrary schedules and high salaries generally unless we assume the responsibility for two major professional moves. Before we mention these, allow a few asides.

It is interesting that in a time when merit systems are on the decrease, demands for them are increasing. As the costs of education rise, many people look first to where forced spending can be cut, in contrast to so-called voluntary spending on liquor, tobacco, cosmetics and what not. The inference is that there is only so much money to go around and that

teachers must concede that we cannot spend as much on the "chucklehead" and the "artist-teacher."

This attitude is surprising in America, where unprecedented expansion of our economic system points to living standards hardly dreamed of a few years ago, and where we seem to find almost unlimited resources for programs important enough. It is likewise surprising when we consider the wealth teachers produce. It has been shown over and over again that the states and communities that spend the most for education receive the most in its products and its living standards. Teachers, unfortunately, have no advertising brotherhood to raise the power of education to the level of acceptance even of the ubiquitous hot dog. It is a bit ironic, therefore, to suggest that in such a context teachers must compete for the few paltry dollars that have come their way.

The answer to the question implied in these statements runs something like this. "We are willing to pay teachers for competent service, but some teachers are not worth what they are getting now." But those who supply the answer in rather glib fashion apparently have little conception of the complexity of (a) providing adequate staff (b) establishing valid procedures. For if learning is as complex as most psychologists seem to say it is, then teaching, too, is one of the most complicated of functions, and measuring it in more than a superficial manner becomes a task for people who know their business. Thus, when merit systems are asked for, costs in staff and their time would run geometrically beyond present expenditures for supervisory services.

There are those who are pleading the case this way. Since a tremendous range in competence is inevitable, salaries consistent with the range would add professional prestige to the total group. But at least a partial answer can be given in this fashion, "Present salary levels being too low to begin with, maximums are relatively meaningless. As long as the average teacher's salary is exceeded by the average income of bartenders, truck-drivers, and others, the argument is stuffed with straw men. Get salaries where they ought to be and we'll consider the proposals."

Now, the first of the major moves referred to above is to demand that people be so carefully screened before being admitted to teaching that no one would dare to use the word "chucklehead." At the risk of some misunderstanding, let me comment briefly upon two criteria that must be up front in the selection process. One is creative intelligence. We don't have to quibble about cut-off points on the Binet to say that college students cannot learn everything *now* about how people learn and develop, to say nothing of applying it in classrooms. Without any idea of being snide, may I say to those who always remind us of the stupid people who are superior teachers, that when teachers behave in a desirable way without intention, desirable results are left to chance. The world is too complex to run such risks.

The second criterion is emotional stability, and I am not talking about insensate duds. For it is incredible how wide a variability in specific

personality patterns one finds among people after they are screened on this factor. Our concern should be primarily that of the effect of the emotionally immature on the mental health of children. Now to quickly summarize this business, selection should not be based on discreet items but on a total pattern of a whole person.

The second major move is to provide enough field experience prior to graduation so that we can say with more than reasonable security, "These people can teach. They can be relatively on their own." Since this must happen in our teacher education programs, with co-operation from public schools, we may be asking for a fifth or even a sixth year of preparation. So what? The plastic surgeon needs six years beyond his internship to be eligible for the national board exams. Would you admit that plastic surgery is more complicated or more important than bringing children to maturity. How little we really think of ourselves. A purpose related to the present discussion is the elimination of the category of "inferior" teachers immediately, with a gradual raising of the floor of competence so that only those attaining it will be admitted. What these two moves imply for salary levels should be obvious.

Finally, it could be asked, where do we go from here? While to many the preceding statements may sound confusing, it should be remembered that the mere emission of complex and controversial issues often raises more questions than are answered. This is not entirely bad since doubt, as John S. Mills suggested, is the beginning of wisdom.

What may very well be the rod that stirs up the hornets' nest is teacher evaluation of students. No one seriously questions the teacher's prerogative to appraise student learning. Yet social scientists have shot rather gaping holes in the sanctity of grading. There is no time here to analyze the relationships of teacher values to student grades, but what we know should make us a bit uncomfortable. In spite of these weaknesses, grades will probably continue, as will demands that because this is so, teachers must also be graded. Now there are, undoubtedly, proper replies to the argument, one being that "supervisors are to teachers as teachers are to students", stretching one's sense of proportion mightily.

In the years to come teachers should face squarely the kinds of pressure to which they are exposed. Neither aggressive action against all proposals of merit, nor yet ignoring them, would seem like mature approaches. Since some teachers are requesting merit increments if attainable maximums are conjoined, a much more defensible attitude is to accept the necessity of a thorough study of the possibilities in particular localities for specific school staffs. This may be the best educating device, as well. And if the outcome is a reasonably satisfactory program for better salary levels, a school staff owes to itself the opportunity to gauge its effectiveness.

Two recently established salary schedules are worth noting. One in Massachusetts, with all increments on merit, establishes minimums at \$3700 and \$4200 for four to six years of preparation, and maximums of \$5800 to \$6800. Now the real point is that merit is interpreted to include

mostly the kinds of factors teachers want to be considered anyway—evidence of additional preparation and evidence of participation in local curriculum development. The only thing missing is that the progress from step to step is automatic. The other, in eastern New York State, begins at \$4000 for a bachelor's degree with automatic increments to \$6300. A person with no more preparation can secure additional increments of from \$200 to \$600 up to a maximum of \$8600, based on performance. Further professional preparation makes possible a \$9200 maximum. Perhaps this is the sensible approach after all.

If there has been a hidden thesis running through all of the above, it is this. In the socio-politico-economic climate in which we live, any single solution to problems of teacher's evaluation and salaries is difficult and at best a compromise. Of this we may be reasonably sure: If teachers do not assume more responsibility for matters of significance to them, other people will.

#### NATIONAL HIGH SCHOOL DEBATE

THE topic for the national high-school discussion for the school year 1956-57 is "What agricultural policy will best serve the interests of the people of the United States?" This problem comprehends three questions for discussion and three propositions for debate as follows: *Discussion Questions* (1) What should be the policy of the Federal government in regard to price supports? (2) What should be the role of government in the conservation of soil resources? (3) What should be the policy of the Federal government in regard to agricultural surpluses? *Debate Propositions* (1) **RESOLVED:** That the Federal government should adopt the basic principles of the Brannan Plan. (2) **RESOLVED:** That the Federal government should sustain the prices of major agricultural products at not less than 90 per cent of parity. (3) **RESOLVED:** That the Federal government should remove from use sufficient acreage to balance agricultural production.

*The NUEA Discussion and Debate Manual*, and other material as well as additional information is available by addressing the Executive Secretary of the Committee, 115 Switzler Hall, University of Missouri, Columbia, Missouri. Other sources are as follow: *Congressional Digest*, the August-September, 1956, issue published by the Congressional Digest Corporation, 1631 K Street, N. W., Washington 6, D. C. (\$1.00) and *The Government and the Farmer* edited by Walter M. Daniels, 195 page booklet available at \$2 each from the H. W. Wilson Company, 950-972 University Avenue, New York 52, New York.

## A New Approach to the Improvement of School Music Programs

JAMES W. DAVIDSON

**T**HE TERM "curriculum development" identifies an aspect of modern education which has aroused learned and not-so-learned dispute, veiled and unveiled invective, bitter recrimination and heated debate too seldom tempered with sweet reasonableness. This is as it should be in a democratic society, for liberal as well as conservative educators realize that curriculum development represents one of the school's most urgent and challenging problems. What is done here will, in the final analysis, determine the real worth of our schools.

Anyone who undertakes this task immediately encounters the problems of "Who?, What?, Where?, Why?, and How?" Educational writings abound with statements of "What?" should go into the curriculum, "Who?" should see that it is accomplished and "Where?" it should be introduced, with perhaps even more having been written about "Why?" these matters are of importance. The problem of "How?" to get the job done is quite a different matter. It appears that many, if not most, writers stop just short of "How?" This is not to belittle those writers but to point up the fact that the problem of "How?" represents the weak link in the chain of curriculum development. This includes "How?" to get consensus regarding the "What?"

Various methods of resolving this problem of "How?" have been tried; the most frequently employed being that labeled by some writers as the "administrative approach." The administrator, or one of his staff, decides on the changes he believes to be desirable, usually after consultation with other staff members. Objectives are re-stated, syllabi are revised, teaching aids are ordered, and revised curriculum manuals are dispatched to the proper departments. After these things have been done, the administrator may confidently believe that the curriculum has been "revised" and that the school program has been improved. Time passes, perhaps several years, and he discovers to his dismay that things haven't really changed much at all; and what was thought to be a huge wave of curriculum revision was in actuality only a slight ripple that soon went the way of all ripples. In some mysterious fashion the school ended up just about where it was before.

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Under the auspices of the Illinois Curriculum Program, another approach toward curriculum improvement has been developed and tried out for the past eight years. Three fundamental principles are basic to this approach:

1. Curriculum revision should proceed along strictly democratic lines.
2. Effective curriculum revision is a grass-roots job, to be accomplished at the local level with the consent and support of faculty, students, and citizens.
3. Curriculum revision should be based on factual knowledge regarding school and community, as well as other research findings.

The Illinois Curriculum Program was launched in 1947 through the efforts of various educational groups in Illinois. Chief among these was the Illinois Secondary-School Principals' Association which, through its Curriculum Committee, had sought for many years for ways and means to achieve curriculum improvement on a statewide level. Upon this Association's recommendation, Vernon L. Nickell, then and now State Superintendent of Public Instruction, agreed to sponsor the Illinois Curriculum Program. Subsequently he obtained funds from the legislature to aid in its development. To guide the Illinois Curriculum Program a Steering Committee was formed consisting of representatives of business and labor organizations, professional education groups, the State University and teachers' colleges, the State Parent-Teachers Association and members of the State Department of Public Instruction.

To assist local schools in working out their own answers to their own problems, the Illinois Curriculum Program has emphasized two things:

1. The development of fact-finding questionnaires, inventories and studies whose findings serve to arouse the interest of citizens in their schools and to provide basic facts for curriculum development.
2. The provision of consultant services to schools to assist in curriculum revision.

Even with over 400 consultants operating throughout the state, it soon became apparent that their services failed to provide adequate coverage. There were not, and probably never would be, enough consultants to provide the services which the schools of the state desired. This problem was met through the development of a series of local-action projects designed to replace some of the services of a consultant. These came to be known as the *Consensus Studies*; one for each subject-matter field as well as for such broad service areas as guidance and extra-class activities.

In essence, the *Consensus Studies* attempt to provide many of the same services that would normally be expected of a consultant who is aiding a school in accomplishing curriculum revision, namely:

1. To help faculty members, pupils, parents and lay citizens come to an agreement on what the school should be doing in the area under consideration.
2. To come to an agreement on what the school is and is not accomplishing in this area.
3. To assist in working out a plan for doing a better job in this area.

Now let us look at one consensus study. The intent of the consensus study in music education is to give free play to democratic action. Substantial evidence indicates that the principal or director of music cannot issue syllabi for courses with the expectation that a more worthwhile music program will thereby be developed. Opinions of the music staff must be respected as well as those of other faculty members, students, parents and other citizens. Lasting curriculum improvement will come about only when all parties concerned share in its formation and development.

No attempt is made in the consensus study in music education to force a strait-jacket on the local school. Nor is local opinion regarded as the only criterion in the development of a good music program. Rather, it is believed that by a thorough consideration of the objectives of music education postulated in this study (formulated on the basis of intense consideration by the best professional consultants obtainable) a synthesis of the two may be realized which will give due consideration to local problems in light of the best professional practices.

The materials used in the study consist of three inventories which are published in booklet form by the Illinois State Department of Public Instruction. Accompanying these inventories is a discussion leaders' manual and instructions for administering the study. The first step in the preparation of these materials was the selection of a jury made up of specialists in music, music education, general education and educational administration. Twelve prominent persons were chosen to serve as jury members. The chief responsibility of the writer was to prepare tentative drafts of each of the three inventories and of the manual for submission to the jury. In a series of five day-long meetings held during 1951-1952, the jury members formulated simply-phrased objectives which they believed would, if followed, result in a superior music education program in the schools. These objectives constitute the basis for each of the three inventories, later to be described, and for the leader's manual.

The nature and use of the inventories can be shown more easily if we trace the steps followed in conducting the action project in music in a typical school situation. It must be emphasized that the *procedures* recommended are an integral part of the study and perhaps more important than the contents of the inventories themselves. The study cannot be materially useful unless the recommended procedures are followed so far as the local situation permits.

The initial task of the school administrator consists of the formation of a central discussion group which will adequately represent various shades of opinion in school and community. This group should consist of all faculty members and of large sample representative of parents, other laymen, and older students. The composition of this group, so far as laymen are concerned, will depend greatly upon the local situation. Certainly it would seem wise for the administrator to include representatives from all distinctive socio-economic groups within the community. The school can hardly expect the wholehearted support of its citizenry unless

they feel that they are adequately represented by those who participate in shaping what the school is attempting to do. The group must not be "packed" with persons who happen to hold a viewpoint consistent with that of the administrator or director of music. It must be a truly democratic representation of many viewpoints.

At the first group meeting, each member is furnished with a copy of Inventory A, entitled "What Do You Think Of Our School's Music Program?" Inventory A contains the statement, in question form, of 23 objectives of music education which are believed to be valid for both elementary and secondary-school music programs. Everyone completing this inventory is asked to indicate:

1. Whether he agrees or disagrees with the objectives stated.
2. How important it is for his school to accomplish each objective.
3. To what extent he believes each objective is now being accomplished.

Of course the respondent is free to reject these objectives in toto if desired, or to propose additional objectives, since additional space is provided for that purpose. Illustrative of the objectives contained in Inventory A are the following:

1. Do you believe our school's music program should aid students in choosing worthwhile radio and television programs?
2. Do you believe our school's music program should acquaint all students with the place of music in the development of American culture?

When all group members have completed Inventory A, the administrator sees to it that the answers are tabulated and reported back to the group as the basis for group discussion in which consensus will be sought concerning what the objectives of the school's music program should be.

To accomplish this purpose, the central group is broken up into smaller discussion groups so that everyone may have his say. The task of each small discussion group is to weight the pros and cons of the significant differences of opinion revealed by Inventory A. The discussion leader for each group has a copy of the leaders discussion manual which aids him in bringing all aspects of each of the twenty-three objectives to open discussion. The school administrator sees to it that at this point all needed facts concerning the school's music program are furnished to each of the discussion groups. He does this in order that informed opinion may be built regarding what the school should do and is doing in its music program.

Upon the completion of these discussions, all of the participating laymen, teachers and pupils are re-assembled and asked to complete Inventory B, entitled "In What Respects Should We Strengthen Our School's Music Program?" As its name suggests, this instrument solicits opinions as to which of the aspects of the school's music program are believed to be in need of improvement. It also affords a measure of the extent to which consensus in support of each of the twenty-three proposed objectives has been built during the group discussions held. Once the improvements in

the music program have been pin-pointed by the results of Inventory B, the administrator appoints a planning committee to decide how these improvements can best be accomplished in the local school.

The composition of this committee is left largely to the discretion of the administrator, but it should be noted that it is here that professional competence is greatly needed. This committee is furnished copies of Inventory C, entitled, "What Should We Do To Strengthen Our School's Music Program?" This instrument suggests practical ways and means of accomplishing each of the twenty-three objectives, and points out possible alternatives regarding course content, time allotment, equipment, supplies, scheduling, pupil credit and methods of evaluation. No claim is made that Inventory C offers a ready-made solution to the problems of the school, but it does represent well-thought-out alternatives, from which those planning may pick and choose to work out a sound solution. This committee is, of course, free to reject any ideas contained in Inventory C or to modify them to fit the local situation.

When the planning committee has developed what it believes to be a sound and workable plan for making the desired improvements in the music program, this plan is reported back to the central group. The group then approves or modifies the plan, as it sees fit.

Once the plan has been approved by the board of education, it is the responsibility of the school administrator and his staff to put it into operation in the school system. The plan itself usually stipulates that this will not be a speedy process, for it will generally note which changes can be made immediately, which in a few months, and which will be possible only in a year or more.

What over-all results might reasonably be expected from conducting this study?

1. *A music program should develop which has more wholehearted public support.* With steadily increasing enrollments, plus increasingly heavy financial problems and continuing attacks on the public schools, the general public can scarcely be expected to provide the support, moral and financial, needed for music and other phases of public education unless it thoroughly approves and understands the program of the school.

2. *The music program should receive increasing aid and support from other faculty members.* One of the major obstacles to curriculum improvement is the unwitting hindrance by other faculty members who simply do not understand what the music program is attempting to do. An example is that of the guidance counselor who neglects to guide potentially musical students into the music program.

3. *The music staff should benefit from directing their teaching toward definite objectives.* The matter of the proper objectives of music education is a formidable and perplexing one. Many writers dodge the whole matter entirely while others state such objectives as "releasing the spirit" or "teaching the value of a quarter note." Such objectives are either so abstract or so specific that they are almost worthless as classroom objectives.

4. *The students should benefit from a more vigorous, meaningful, and well-rounded music program.* By giving the students some voice in the development of a music program which they believe to be attractive, the over-all music curriculum should gain greatly in student participation.

A basic tenet of the Illinois Curriculum Program is that its publications should be cost-free to Illinois schools. They are also available to out-of-state schools at no cost, but not in quantity. Sample copies will be furnished on request to schools outside of Illinois, and they may be reproduced by any group that wishes to use them on a not-for-profit basis. Each school that conducts a study based on the material supplied by the Illinois Curriculum Program is asked to report on the results obtained. The information thus supplied will be used to improve the study.

The material for the Consensus Study in Music Education, as well as the forms for reporting the results, may be obtained by writing to Dr. Eric T. Johnson, Director, Illinois Curriculum Program, 204 Gregory Hall, University of Illinois, Urbana, Illinois.

#### EVALUATION OF DICTIONARIES AND ENCYCLOPEDIAS

WO publications have recently been released which evaluates dictionaries and encyclopedias. The evaluation of dictionaries and also the one of encyclopedias evaluates from 20 to 25 of the more standard publications in these fields. It gives the exact name, dates, the grade level, usage, the publisher, the copyright date, the price, the number of pages, the number of items included, the number of entries and illustrations included, a brief statement as to its availability, a plan for keeping up to date, and other such information as is necessary to the person who is planning to purchase either a dictionary or encyclopedia. Copies of these two evaluations may be secured at 25c each with additional copies available at 10c each, plus a stamped, self-addressed envelope to Laurance H. Hart, 14 West Walnut Street, Metuchen, New Jersey.

# Human Engineering

CHARLES A. TONSOR

**T**WO facts stand out glaringly in the field of education. Our nation is face to face with a dearth of engineers, scientists, and personnel of parts. Our brain-power is at low ebb. Our nation is engulfed in a flood of crime and delinquency; our moral stamina is feeble. The situation can have its origin only in a cause that is universal throughout the nation—education. A system of education that is valid in philosophy, clear in its objectives, effective in its methods should provide both the needed brain power and the needed moral stamina.

The totalitarian states have been far more effective than we in providing for their needs. The regimes have established themselves in power, won the adherence of youth, and produced the brain power that they needed for their purposes. China, which by every fact of its history should be a friend and well-wisher of America, is our bitterest enemy and the only nation in our history to fight us to defeat on the field of battle and outwit us in diplomacy. By what means did she put herself into this position? By education, but by a planned system of education to which we may give the name human engineering.

This is not to say that China invented this system; far from it. Either Lenin or Hitler is its architect, although Mussolini was not long out of the charmed circle that used it to accomplish the ends of the totalitarian state. Each created a supplementary agency of education known respectively as the *Komsomol*, *Der Deutcher Jugend*, *Gli Giovanni d'Italia*. China's system was patterned after this.

In the early days of the revolution in Russia, Prof. Counts was called from Teachers College, Columbia, to organize the system of education. The professor was a protagonist of progressive education, the kind we have adopted in America. He lasted just two years. The Russian leadership saw it was nothing for them. After thirty-eight years, we haven't yet awokened to the fact.

The Russians knew what they wanted, they formed a plan to get it, and they carried out all the steps required to produce what they had planned. So did Hitler, so did Mussolini, so did Mao-Tse-Tung. In other words they applied the procedure of engineering to produce the type of human being they desired, and initiated *human engineering*. The engineer makes up his mind as to what he wishes to produce, draws up a plan to guide him, gets out the specifications (description of procedure) that

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will produce the result, runs a pilot plant to eliminate the bugs, and brings all his skill and ingenuity to bear. This has produced just what was desired.

For a totalitarian state to do that is and was a simple matter; power is concentrated in the hands of a few. *Step 1.* Abolish religion. That removed impedance to the operation. *Step 2.* Purge dissidents either through death or forced labor. No variation is permitted. Everyone has to follow the line of the adopted plan. Remember the laws of habit formation?

Democracy, however, is floundering. Needing loyalty, it is unable to command it; needing skill and brains, it is unable to secure them. *Laissez-faire* just doesn't work. Democracy, therefore, must either adopt human engineering to produce what it needs or disintegrate before the more efficient system of the totalitarian state. Democracy can use human engineering to produce what it needs, but with far more difficulty than in the case of the total state. Democracy must tolerate differences, for as Charles Evans Hughes pointed out: "When we lose the right to be different, we lose the right to be free." Democracy must recognize the validity of religion, for our western culture has its roots in Greco-Roman-Hebraic-Christian cultures. If we ignore these, then what is our culture?

Democracy must steer between Scylla and Charybdis. If we adopt no plan other than *laissez-faire*, our culture may readily crumble and find our people easy pickings for the totalitarian states. If we insist on conformity, we may by our own activity become a totalitarian state. Yet we cannot drift as we are. We must produce a youth that is loyal, ardently devoted to and practiced in those qualities and processes upon which a democratic state depends. That does not mean a new curriculum must be adopted, but it does mean a more vigorous philosophy and some new procedures. We must lay out carefully the design that will continue and strengthen the democratic way. That means we must go over our plans and purposes to settle upon a plan which will produce youth sold on the democratic way of life. Then we must work the plan. How can we achieve the design we have laid out? We must orient youth to himself and to the society in which he will live.

If we are to achieve our design for a citizen in a democratic state as successfully as the totalitarian states have succeeded with their youth, our educational procedures must be as specific to *our* purpose as theirs are to theirs. And since our society is as different as day is from night compared to theirs, so must our methods be. Three things must we do to create the individual we want since in our society the individual is basic. We must give to each youth:

1. *A faith to live by*—Call it religion or philosophy or whatever you will, as long as you recognize that there is something to this universe other than man and matter. The totalitarian state has given its youth a faith, a rabid faith.

2. *A self to live with*—Call it adjustment, if you will, as long as you recognize that each individual must build a character and personality which derives its

urgency from within and not from the demands that others make upon it; one that, like Robinson Crusoe, can get along with itself.

3. *A Purpose to live for*—Call it a vocation, if you wish, provided that you recognize that its worth is not measured solely by dollars and cents or even apparent utility.

The turbulence of our age stems in no small part from our failure to do a good job in these areas. Whereas we have the needed instruments in our present so-called traditional curriculum, we fail to make proper use of them, frequently keeping to the fore the technical rather than the cultural objectives of our various subject fields. A multitude of counselors will provide little strength, abundant teachers will make little dent in the turbulence of our age, and a plethora of facilities and agencies will produce no alleviation unless we provide each one of our youth with these three essentials of a good life.

But this is not all because the individual must live for some of his time at least in a *society*, a democratic society which is the epitome of all the struggles and experience of the western world in the establishment and development of a democratic culture. As an English newspaperman has put it: "The trouble with the younger generation is that they do not know the minutes of the previous meeting." We must teach them those minutes. Therefore, we have three more things to do:

1. *To explain to youth the nature of man.* It was no accident that Socrates preached "Know Thyself."

2. *To open to youth the accumulated stock of knowledge* which the history and literature of the race provide.

3. *To show him the techniques of living in a democratic society*, how to solve whatever problems may arise. That involves thorough training in problem-solving techniques. It does not mean trying to solve problems for him or giving him ready-made solutions. This was the fallacy underlying the philosophy of education which set out to reform society under the New Deal. Each generation must arrive at its own solution.

Whether or not we shall produce the result desired is beyond our ability to predict. In a totalitarian state, the objective can be secured by force since the state and not the individual is supreme. In a democracy, as Daniel Webster clearly saw and stated: "Every man must educate himself; his books and his teachers are but a help."

If we proceed along the lines indicated by these two trilogies, we must, in the very nature of things, in so far as the objectives and results are under our control, produce the type of citizen we set out to produce. We have executed the third step in human engineering. We have carried out those steps in the nature of the art which will accomplish our objective.

Whether or not we succeed depends in no small measure on the youth himself as well as on the emotional climate we create. All the totalitarian states have taken great pains to develop an emotional climate which subordinates the reason and produces unchallenged acceptance. They channel thinking into the lines that fit their pattern. A friend once remarked to Frederick the Great on observing his honor guard, giants of men,

"I wonder what they are thinking about?" "Thinking?" said Frederick, "if they ever stopped to think, there wouldn't be a man left in the ranks." We have to get them to *think* and to *stay* in the ranks.

That means we must build the right kind of emotions or emotions attached to the right kind of activities. In my young days there were parades on Lincoln's Birthday, Washington's Birthday; every place had a picture of Washington, Jefferson, Franklin, Lincoln. Flags flew frequently. The totalitarian states have stolen this away from us and are using the activities to their own ends. In school there were musical festivals with flags and parents. We have lost that emotional appeal of pride to quicken the sense of loyalty and deepen the affection for the democratic way. Some of this must be recovered if we are to win youth from the ways we now criticize. *We*, not they, are at fault; *we* have not given them the emotional satisfactions that go with democratic living—or that do not require uniforms or salutes.

Also we have debunked our heroes, while the totalitarian states, taking a leaf from Pastor Wiems' book on George Washington, have idealized their heroes from Lenin to Chou-en-lai and Ho-Chi-Minh! We have given our youth no noble souls to worship. That is why the totalitarian states in so short a time have been able to win over the loyalty of youth. We have some deep thinking to do if we are to give youth heroes of whom they can be proud. One cannot develop pride in abstractions.

No revolution in education is required to carry out the needed reform. Each teacher can do it within the framework of the present curriculum. But each teacher must devote himself deliberately to the two trilogies and make them basic every day in the year whether he is teaching sewing, English, auto mechanics, language, or mathematics. He must have in mind constantly the kind of person he desires to create. If he plays on the emotional elements in the activity, loyalty, pride, sportsmanship, and what have you, strangely enough, without fanfare or proclamations of official boards, he will produce the type of individual he desires to produce. Such is human engineering in the democratic way. Such is the best attack on delinquency.

# What Are Recent Trends in Junior High School Organization and Administration?

DRAYTON E. MARSH

BEFORE presenting my observations on recent trends in the junior high school, I feel that the reader is entitled to a little background information. Briefly, I first entered junior high-school administrative work in 1935 in the state of Washington. Besides several years' experience as a junior high-school principal, I served two years as a senior high-school principal and six years as a superintendent of two school districts. Six years ago I moved to Culver City, California, where I have been in junior high-school administration ever since. During the past summers I have helped to conduct a workshop for junior high-school teachers and administrators at the University of Oregon in Eugene. I also had the privilege of visiting fourteen different junior high schools in the state of Oregon. I wish to discuss the following trends:

1. Teamwork approach of faculty and administrators
2. The continuous evaluation of the junior high-school program to improve the learning situation
3. Better understanding of the needs of the adolescent by teachers and parents
4. More and better in-service training programs for all junior high-school teachers
5. Trends in meeting junior high-school building needs
6. Change of philosophy about discipline
7. The trend in junior high-school counseling
8. Curriculum experimentation
9. Improvement in textbooks and teaching materials
10. Improved articulation or orientation between the grades below the junior high-school and above

Trends show direction, but not necessarily uniform achievement. They are just straws in the wind, so to speak. Trends have to be very carefully considered for two reasons. One is that they merely show the general direction that our thinking and action is going. Whether these trends are advisable or not, in many cases, remains to be seen. For example, the trend to increase class size, to most of us, would not be considered advisable. Too, when trends appear desirable they sometimes make us too hopeful. The direction that we are about to take may look a lot better

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than the whole situation would warrant. For example, some schools get into the core curriculum program before the faculty or community is ready for it. If such is the case, the administration was just too hopeful.

The junior high school is the only truly American part of our United States school system. Junior high-school administrators and teachers will make it the lighthouse school of our American school system in the years ahead. There was a period between 1938 and 1946 when the junior high-school movement lost ground, but this is not true today. The junior high school is here to stay and during the next decade, its contribution to education will be outstanding.

#### TEAMWORK APPROACH

For the alert educator and administrator, the trend today is to have the faculty participate in the planning of the curriculum program. Many teachers often prefer that the principal tell them what to do. Then they feel free to sit back and gripe. Today the democratic type of administrator is on the upswing throughout the country. This does not mean that the administration of the school is turned over to the staff. It just means that an atmosphere of freedom and security is established where the faculty members have an opportunity to study their problems and their needs and to suggest solutions. These solutions are considered and worked out together and then incorporated into the program. To do this, the principal must be an enthusiastic person who can give real leadership and still be aggressive and willing to promote the program worked out democratically by the faculty and himself.

The supervisory type of program must go. The trend is toward the elimination of department heads, as such, and the appointment of subject area chairmen who have equal status with other teachers in that subject area. This program gives more teachers an opportunity for leadership and for the development of initiative. Supervisors who work strictly in subject areas like English, mathematics, or history cannot be a part of the junior high-school program. For example, a teacher of English and social studies would be confused by the instructions received from the English supervisor and from the history supervisor. Today the trend is to have a curriculum director who works with the faculty through the principal. Dr. Long of New York University speaks about how the busy principal needs help. The appointment of a guidance and curriculum director on the secondary level to serve the small junior high school and the small senior high school of one district, or a guidance and curriculum director for each large junior high school, seems to be providing a part of the solution to this problem. The type of trend outlined here helps the busy principal. It is doing a job that many administrators want done; that is, developing leadership within the staff. This we should be doing because the rapid expansion of the junior high-school program is upon us and we must have people trained to take over these jobs and to do them well. These leaders must come from those junior high-school teaching personnel now teaching at the level.

### CONTINUOUS EVALUATION OF THE PROGRAM

One cannot discuss trends without discussing philosophy. Our philosophy about our schools must be continuously refreshed and revised in our minds. It is the duty of the administrator and the teachers of the junior high school to explore continually the reasons behind what they are doing. We do not stop often enough to ask ourselves why we do the things we do. If we do not have vision, we are not going any place. We all agree that we are doing better than we have done in the past, but the question is, Are we doing as well as we can? We live in a very modern civilization that is becoming more complex every day, so we have to recognize the fact that we will have to do better in the future. We should have a philosophy for everything that we do, and the philosophy must be related to the program to be of value. If we cannot justify the philosophy, we had better discard it. We should have a philosophy about discipline, guidance, orientation, basic skills, meeting the social needs of the adolescents, *etc.*

The school that recognizes these changes and then tries to design a curriculum and a school building to meet the needs of these young people is leading in that trend today. May I inject the thought here that the junior high school itself is like the period of adolescence, because it is the period of transition from childhood to mid-adolescence, to the late teens. The junior high-school provides for the transition from the elementary school to the senior high school. Where can we provide better for the adjustment of these boys and girls, ages eleven to fifteen, than in a junior high-school building with a program designed for this age group?

### UNDERSTANDING THE ADOLESCENT CHILD

Today educators, parents, doctors, social workers, juvenile officers, ministers, and other resource people in the community are beginning to understand that all people grow and learn from birth to death by developmental stages. Adolescence is just one stage in that process. We have found by experience that young people do have unique needs during this period of their lives. This concern for and the desire to know more about our young people from the ages of eleven to fifteen is sweeping the country today. As far back as 1919, Thomas W. Gosling stated well the purpose of the junior high school. He described the characteristics of the adolescent, his needs, and what the school should do to provide for these needs. Not until 1936 do we find much research being made by psychologists into the needs of adolescents. We have talked about the rapid physical growth and change of these youth and the effect that this has had on their emotional and social outlook. We have said that the distinctive characteristic of the junior high school was its dedication to serving the needs of early adolescence. For thirty-five years, we have been trying to put this philosophy into practice. At last, junior high-school administrators and teachers have awakened to the fact that this understanding of adolescents must and can become a reality. Along with the trend of understanding the adolescent, we find that junior high-school faculties

and administrators are taking the lead in helping the parents and the community to understand better the needs of this junior high-school age group. This is being done through regular PTA meetings, or specially planned parent education meetings. Principals, who are interested, will find a wealth of good articles in our National Association BULLETINS, especially during the last three years.

This understanding of self has been emphasized by two of the outstanding men of our country. Both Dr. Bonelle and Dr. Alexander emphasized the need for understanding ourselves if we are going to do a job of understanding our pupils. Dr. Bonelle makes three points: (1) we must have a faith to live by, (2) we must have a self that we can live with and (3) we must have a purpose to live for. Dr. Alexander put it this way: (1) Do you have a wholesome attitude toward life? (2) Do you have a self fit to live with? (3) Do you have a world fit to live in? and (4) Do you have a philosophy fit to live by?

#### IN-SERVICE TRAINING FOR TEACHERS

The improvement of in-service training programs for junior high-school teachers is another trend that is growing throughout the country. As Dr. Cramer of Kansas City, Missouri, points out, there were at the last count made some two years ago 3,267 junior high schools. These were the three-year junior high schools in the United States out of the 28,000 secondary schools, and they had over twenty percent of the enrollment. Junior high teachers need more than just the in-service training of how to follow the routine of the school. They need to devote time to enlarging their vision as to the philosophy of the junior high school, the psychology of the adolescent, the needs of this pupil, and how, through their particular subject or subject area, they can take care of those needs. Then of course, comes the needs for learning good teaching techniques and procedures. It is not a case of learn, test, and grade. Today good teaching involves pupil participation in planning ways of meeting the individual and group needs, and in an evaluation by the pupil and the teacher of how well those needs are being met. Only through in-service training can junior high-school teachers grow and improve on the job.

Within the last four or five years, more universities and colleges are providing workshops and courses on the junior high school for junior high-school principals and teachers. Up until recently the junior high-school teacher has been unable to find courses of this kind being offered. Most of these courses have been for either elementary or high school. Forward looking colleges and universities see the need, are recognizing the demand, and are beginning to provide these much needed courses for junior high-school teachers. These offerings have come mainly through workshops and special extension classes.

The teachers want more psychological insight into the problems of youth to help them with their teaching. They want more psychological insight to the social structure of the community to know how the community affects these young people. They want to acquire the ability to help the student set up goals that are significant to him and that will

require him to make a maximum of intellectual effort. All teachers are becoming aware of the need to be better teachers of the communication skills. It doesn't make any difference whether they teach English, social studies, science, mathematics, speech, foreign language, *etc.* Youth have to learn how to read, how to think, and how to express themselves both orally and through writing or through creative work done with their hands. Teachers see the need for giving every pupil creative experience. They want to know how to improve teacher-pupil relationships and pupil-pupil relationships.

#### BUILDING NEEDS

The building of new junior high schools is definitely on the increase, mainly because of the increase in the numbers of adolescents. Today we find a number of junior high-school administrators, teachers, superintendents, and lay people who believe in the junior high-school program as an important part of our educational system. They believe that the junior high-school has a definite purpose; namely, that it provides for that particular stage of growth and development of adolescents at a time in their lives when certain physical powers become dominant. We must face the fact that there will be temporary dislocations. Classroom loads will be increased, not because we want it, but because we have to. The high birth rate of the years following the war will hit the junior high-school beginning in 1956 and 1957. From then on there will be a mad rush to keep up with the building needs for this tidal wave of adolescents.

It is recommended that a regular junior high-school classroom should not be less than 1,000 square feet. It used to be that 900 pupils was the recommended size for a large junior high school. Today Los Angeles City is trying to hold its junior high-school size to 1,600 but its junior high-schools today are running from 1,500 to as high as 2,900 pupils. There will be more junior high schools on double session within the next three or four years. This will be common throughout the country. School administrators and boards of education must plan carefully the kinds of buildings that they want for these adolescents because the junior high schools that are built today are frozen into the future. In planning schools for these adolescents, we must keep in mind the need for many personalized services for this age group and, at the same time, figure out how to maintain satisfactory academic achievement.

#### DISCIPLINE

Trends in discipline for junior high schools are changing. Instead of the old negative concept of rules which would be kept by the policeman-like action of teachers, we are now evolving the type of discipline which is discipline through a sense of personal responsibility. This has probably come out of our acceptance of the "common learnings curriculum." When junior high-school teachers began to accept the idea that pupils should and could participate in the planning and evaluation of their work and when we began to get away from this completely departmentalized set-up so that pupils weren't just learning facts but

were learning their history, geography, English, and literature as a result of studying things that were meaningful together, we could see that a wisely guided school program was one in which the individual pupil had an opportunity to gain self-control through participation in these acts of self-determination, self-realization, and self-care. The alert and forward thinking administrators think of discipline in terms of the total school program—the student council activities, the assemblies, the classroom procedures, and the philosophy of the faculty. The new approach is to eliminate discipline problems through positive rather than negative action.

#### COUNSELING

Twenty-five years ago, educators thought of guidance as a class where the teacher took out so much time every week to teach character. Today we think of guidance not as something that we do to the pupil, but as something we do with him. Counseling involves not only the teacher, but also special teachers called counselors, the attendance clerks, the nurses, the assistant principal, district psychologists, and many community resource people like social welfare workers, juvenile officers, pastors, *etc.* All are used in counseling with the youth. He is not told what to do but is given an opportunity to make a decision. This type of counseling requires much work on the part of the administration and the staff, but more and more junior high schools are following this trend.

#### CURRICULUM EXPERIMENTATION

Junior high schools have shown a tendency to be independent in planning their curriculums. The personnel read the literature, consult with leaders in the field, and study together the problems within their own schools; but in making the final decisions, junior high-school faculties try to build a curriculum that will best suit the needs of the pupils in the community in which they live. They also try to build a program that will fit into the programs of the other schools in that community, which are below them and above them. Junior high-school teachers should be encouraged to keep alert and be aware of the best trends in education.

They should also recognize that they should be able to explain and justify the type of program they have at any time and be ready to make changes when needed. For example, once we grouped our students, as someone said, homogeneously, strictly on the IQ basis. Many said then and still do that this type of grouping was undemocratic and shouldn't be done. However, many educators realize that it is undemocratic not to provide for each pupil the type of educational program that he needs. Very few schools group homogeneously today, but many schools are setting up three or four working levels, particularly in the academic areas. Some schools set these groups up on reading ability alone. Other types of grouping involve past academic achievement, opinion of the teachers, and many other factors. Today more schools have sections for slow learners, and occasionally, some will have a section or two for the gifted student. There is a trend toward identifying our brighter students and trying to provide a program to meet their needs. More progress will be

made in the future because we, as educators, will appraise these gifted students in terms of their ability to learn, an arrangement which has too often been neglected.

Junior high schools now recognize that students entering the junior high school do not have a complete mastery of the learning skills. Since these skills have not been entirely mastered in the grades, special attention is being given to them in the junior high school. Special classes are set up in remedial reading. Grouping is done to help those students who need to master the simple mathematical skills. Teachers, through in-service training, are learning the techniques of teaching reading. Dr. Witty, in describing the reading needs of junior high-school pupils, says "In grades 7 through 9, the skills learned in the early grades must be extended to apply in every subject field. With help from teachers and encouragement at home, the average pupil can improve his reading habits after he leaves the sixth grade." From that statement alone, we can see that junior high-school teachers, whether in English, social studies, mathematics, science, foreign language, or any other field, must acquire the skill and the understanding of teaching reading.

#### IMPROVEMENT OF INSTRUCTIONAL MATERIALS

It used to be that a teacher was lucky if she had one basic textbook for use in her class. Today, we use several texts, or one basic text and several supplementary textbooks. Today, school districts have long lists of approved textbooks. We now have better libraries and more library books where students can do research. The books we are buying today are better suited to their needs. Books are coming out which are written at the pupil's reading level and at his interest level. They are written about things that the adolescent likes. A great deal has been done to make better use of audio-visual equipment and audio-visual aids. Teachers of all subject areas recognize the importance of having attractive bulletin boards and displays. These centers of interest stimulate the pupil's curiosity, and, from them, the teacher can direct the pupil's interest in reading and in other activities.

#### IMPROVED ARTICULATION BETWEEN THE GRADES

Junior high-school teachers and administrators should take the lead in improving the articulation that must go on between the school grades below and the school grades above. The junior high-school must work with the sixth-grade pupils, their parents, their teachers, and their principals. The same is true on the senior high-school level. The junior high-school staff must take the lead in providing information about the tenth-grade pupils moving on to the senior high-school. The junior high-school should also arrange orientation meetings for parents and ninth-grade pupils at which senior high-school staff members can explain and answer questions regarding the pupil's high-school program. It is most important that junior high-school faculties know what is being done at the other levels, both below and above, so they can plan their educational programs well.

# Trends in Organization and Administration of Junior High Schools

HARL R. DOUGLASS

MUCH of this article is based upon data gathered by the author from some three hundred and seventy junior high schools distributed throughout the forty-eight states. There is a steady trend toward the 6-3-3 organization. At present almost half of the students in grades 7, 8, and 9 are enrolled in junior high schools, as compared to about 16 to 18 per cent in six-year high schools, and between 30 and 35 per cent in schools in which there are 8-4 plans of organization.

In 280 of the 370 schools, or slightly more than 75 per cent, the junior high schools are housed in a building of their own; about 44 in the same buildings as the elementary school; and 44 in the same building with the senior high school.

Of the 370 schools, 308 have a separate junior high-school principal, while 38 have the same principal as the elementary school, and 13, the same principal as the senior high school. There is a slight trend for the six-year secondary schools to break up into separate junior and senior high schools as the enrollment becomes larger.

There are two clean-cut trends with respect to organization of the school day, and one is about as prominent as the other. The majority of the schools have their school day organized either on the basis of: (a) six periods of approximately 53 to 55 minutes net, with a short, daily, so-called homeroom period of ten or 15 minutes; and (b) a day of seven periods of approximately 47 to 48 minutes net, with one of the periods being given over to activities, homerooms, and assemblies each day.

As a result of this trend for longer periods and shorter numbers of periods, the number of study halls to be conducted continues to diminish.

More than 60 per cent of the schools now have a core program in some form or another, at least in one grade. In these schools the core has a bloc period usually between an hour and a half and two hours, although in a few, where more than two subjects are involved, it runs for two hours and a quarter to two hours and a half. In 147, or approximately 40 per cent of the 370 schools, the core involves English and the social studies; in 25 per cent of the schools it involves English, social studies, and science; and in 45 of the schools, other various combinations.

While grouping still continues in the elementary schools and recently there has been a trend toward a little more grouping, less than half of the schools have no grouping of any kind. In 42 schools grouping is done

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in all subjects; in 13 schools, in some subjects. In 89 schools there are remedial classes in arithmetic; and in 155 schools, remedial classes in reading. In 77 schools there are special classes for bright students; in 183 schools there are special classes for dull students. In 193 schools special help is given in regular classes to dull students.

There have been some interesting trends in improving the record system. Today there are records of educational, vocational, and avocational interests in more than 60 per cent of the schools; in fact, 224 of the 370 schools. In 194 schools these are available in the central office only; in 79 schools they are given to homeroom teachers, and in 45 schools, to all the classroom teachers.

Records of participation in activities are kept in all but 51 of the 370 schools. In 186 schools they are available only in the central office; in 109 they are given to homeroom teachers, and in 42 to all classroom teachers.

Vocational and part-time employment records are now kept in about half of the schools. In 136 schools they are available only in the central office; in 50 they are given to the homeroom teachers, and in 19 to all classroom teachers.

In all but 37 of the schools, that is, in 90 per cent of the schools, records are kept of mental test scores. In 206 schools these are available only in the central office; in 97 schools they are given to homeroom teachers; and in 103 schools, to all teachers.

There is a trend toward a shorter lunch period which, no doubt, is a result of better and more cafeterias and more youngsters eating at school, by reason of the increased income of their parents. There is a 30-minute period in 72 of the schools; 45-minute period in 41 schools, and 60-minute period in 43 schools. In 169 schools the period is 45 minutes or less, and in 133 of the schools it is 50 minutes or more. While almost half of the schools have only one lunch period, there are two periods in 95 of the schools; 3 periods in 63 of the schools; 4 periods in 15 schools; and, believe it or not, five periods in 8 schools and seven periods in one. (Eating goes on all the time in that school apparently.) There has also been an increase in the percentage of pupils who eat in schools. In 120 of the schools more than 90 per cent of the youngsters eat lunch at school. In 233 of the schools—almost two-thirds—50 per cent or more eat in the schools, while only in 102 schools do less than 40 per cent eat their lunch at school.

The tendency and trend to have longer homeroom periods and fewer meetings a week seems to be spreading but slowly. More than half of the schools have homerooms five periods a week, while 50 have homerooms two, three, or four times a week, and 61 have a homeroom only one period a week. Ninety-seven of the schools have homeroom periods of 15 minutes or less. These probably are not homerooms, but roll rooms for handling attendance and other administrative matters. In 75 of the schools the homeroom is approximately 30 minutes, while in 99 the homeroom is 35 to 50 minutes.

The tendency to cut the teaching load from six classes to five a day has become very general. Only five sections a day is the typical load in approximately two-thirds of the schools, and in only 61 schools, or one out of six, are there teachers now teaching six sections. Indeed, there is a slight observable trend to have some teachers at least teaching only four classes a day.

There seems to be a slight trend in increasing the size of the class. In 140 schools the class size is from 31 to 35 pupils. This, of course, is too large. In 120 schools the class size is 30 students, and in 53 of the schools the typical class size is between 25 and 29.

There are a few trends in connection with the organization and curriculum which were noticeable. There is a trend to offer a little less work in general science, commonly no more than two years, and if offered in three years, the classes meet only 2 or 3 times a week in grades seven and eight. Indeed, where it is offered in 2 years, there is a slight trend toward offering the class three times a week in the eighth-grade and five in the ninth-grade.

In mathematics the trend toward offering a course in general mathematics continues, and about 85 per cent of the schools now offer a course in general mathematics. There is a growing tendency to require either algebra or general mathematics in the ninth grade. This practice now exists in 310 of the 370 schools.

There is a tendency to offer a wider variety of arts and crafts. Wood-work seems to be making a comeback. In general, home economics seems to be absorbing instruction in food preparation and clothing construction, and also includes topics in home living. In general, a course in home economics was reported by 180, or approximately half of the 370 schools, in the seventh grade; in 237 schools in the eighth grade; and in 228 schools in the ninth grade. Typing and general business are both disappearing from the junior high school. They are probably being shoved up into the senior high school.

From various answers to the rather long questionnaire to which the 370 schools replied, there is considerable evidence that co-operative procedures are replacing authoritarian or "from the top down" procedures. Among the number of items indicating this, is one that indicates that in 352 of the schools, teachers are given a great deal of freedom to change the course of study. Not only is authoritarian practice in administration tending to disappear, but authoritarian practice in the classroom is likewise doing so. This, of course, is in line with the trends in business, home, and even in the armed forces. The author of this article recently spent a week as a member of a survey commission inspecting the United States Army Command and General Staff School at Fort Leavenworth, and was pleased to note the extent to which a co-operative approach is being employed there. All of this, of course, grows out of the increased respect for each individual and the consequent belief that each individual should have some share in planning the activities of a group in which he is participating, and that the creative and leadership qualities of all individuals should be discovered and utilized.

## A Basic Program for Junior High Schools

GUSTAVE RAITZ

**E**AST Meadow is located on Long Island geographically between Hempstead and Levittown, approximately twenty-five miles from midtown Manhattan. This community has grown very rapidly since the end of World War II. Just to give an idea of our rapid growth, in the school year 1945 there were 505 pupils and in the school year 1955, we had on our staff 514 teachers. The 1955 census shows this community to have a total population of approximately 50,000. In October 1955, our school enrollment in grades K through 11 was 11,985. At the present time our twelfth-grade students are attending Hempstead High School on a tuition basis.

We started the school year of 1955 with five elementary buildings. In September of that year, we opened the Barnum Woods Elementary School which is a 960 pupil building. On January 31st, 1955, we moved to the East Meadow High School building which accommodates 1,500 pupils. After Easter vacation, we moved into three 600-pupil elementary schools; namely, the Parkway School, Salisbury School, and the Meadowbrook Elementary School. In September 1955, we opened the 1200-pupil Meadowbrook Junior High School and, finally, on December 15, 1955, we opened the Woodland Junior High School with a capacity of 1,600 pupils. We are very proud of this record since we opened six schools in this short period of time. We just completed a \$6,000,000 Junior-Senior High School.

We feel that we have an ideal Junior High School program, and I should like to discuss this matter more fully. Each of our groups of approximately 30 pupils are assigned to a home room. Each home room teacher also teaches this group at least two periods every day. For instance, teacher "A," certified in English and citizenship education, teaches these subjects to her home-room group. Teacher "B" certified in mathematics and science, teaches his home-room group these subjects. Some time during the day, these two classes are exchanged and teacher "A" has the "B" home-room group for English and Citizenship Education, and teacher "B" has the "A" group for mathematics and science. These classes are scheduled in two-period blocks of time. In this program, each student daily gets one period each of English, citizenship education, science and mathematics at the seventh- and eighth-grade level.

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Special classes are also scheduled into the program. For example, home-room "A" is scheduled for twenty weeks of art work with an art teacher in a special room, five days a week. The girls of home-room "B" receive instruction in homemaking and the boys in shop, during this same 20-week period. At the conclusion of this time, the program interchanges. Each home-room group receives physical education in the gymnasium twice a week. This same period on other days is used for music education, guidance, remedial spelling, and remedial reading. Special services are available to the pupil through trained personnel to work with reading, speech, and psychological services.

A full program of extracurricular activities is also carried on. It includes advertising design, art, audio-visual aids, band, citizenship education, chess, chorus, current events, dramatics, future nurses, leaders, library, literary, model airplane, newspaper, orchestra, *papier mache* and puppet modeling, photography, science, slide-rule club, stage design, stamp club, and student council. We also have intramural sports activities, and each junior high-school sponsors two interscholastic teams. These four teams are fully equipped and play interscholastic games within our own school district.

From the reactions of parents, teachers, students, and educators, we are convinced that this is a very good program. However, to make it successful, it is necessary to have ample facilities and outstanding personnel. We are very fortunate in East Meadow in having some of the finest facilities in the United States. The professional members of our staff are well-above the average teachers. These two factors play a most important part in making our school run smoothly.

The real credit for the planning, organization, and execution of this program is due to the work of many individuals. Our board of education has played an important role. Our superintendent of schools, Dr. Edward J. McCleary, has contributed his keen foresight to the operation of this endeavor. Samuel A. Manarel, who was the first principal of East Meadow High School, and is now assistant superintendent of schools in charge of secondary education, has contributed greatly to the success of this program.

# The Junior High School Principal Works with His Faculty for Continuous Professional Growth

JOSEPH MERSAND

IT IS significant for this discussion that the title of the 1955 Yearbook of the American Association of School Administrators is *The Principal and Staff Relationships*; that one of the most recent books on supervision is entitled *Supervision as Human Relations* (by John Bartky, D. C. Heath, 1953); and that a recent meeting of the New York Society for the Experimental Study of Education was devoted to the staff relations plan, which was set up two years ago by the then president of the board of education, James Marshall.

The practical experience of industry in evolving methods of increasing production as well as staff morale; the many psychological studies during World War II, both among our armed forces and the millions of workers in defense plants and private industry; the ever-increasing research and empirical studies made in various schools throughout the country in this subject of teacher-supervisor-relationships—have all contributed to accumulating a mass of information and a body of guiding principles which may be utilized by every alert and progressive principal who is sincerely interested in the maximum growth of every member of his staff, so that they in turn may contribute to the maximum growth of every child in the school.

## THE EDUCATIONAL PHILOSOPHY OF THE PRINCIPAL

Basic to the entire discussion is the underlying philosophy of the principal, which should include a judicious balance between social control and individual freedom; the avoidance of both autocracy and *laissez-faire*. In the democratic role of the principal as school leader, democracy substitutes consultation and voluntary agreement for the subordination of the many to the few, enforced by coercion, whether it be physical, economic, psychological or moral. This philosophy would reveal itself in school practice by the following:

1. Respect for the dignity and worth of every individual, regardless of race, creed, wealth, or social status.
2. Co-operation for the common benefit: supervisors, teachers, pupils, parents, and the public generally.
3. Development of each individual's potentialities in harmony with the common welfare.

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What are the implications of such a philosophy as they relate to the day-to-day school activities? Some experts have maintained that they can sense these evidences after even a brief visit to the school. Making up the picture of a wholesome educational philosophy as put into daily practice are:

1. There must be a permissive atmosphere, freedom from unwarranted criticism, and freedom from fear of reprisals.
2. Group consideration of policies, before putting them into effect.
3. Persuasion of opponents rather than disregarding or eliminating them.
4. Prior experimentation with something new before imposing same upon the staff.
5. Participation of teachers and supervisors with respect to their special knowledge, skills, and experiences.
6. Publicity rather than secrecy about such school routines as allowances, assignments, patrol duties, and proctoring.

#### HOW CAN A DEMOCRATIC AND GROWTH-FOSTERING SCHOOL CLIMATE BE ESTABLISHED AND MAINTAINED?

A democratic and growth-fostering school climate cannot be prescribed by administrative fiat, cannot be achieved overnight even with the best intentions on the part of the principal, or maintained without long, arduous effort and good will on the side of both teachers and supervisors. A few successful ways in which principals have made positive contributions to establishing such a climate have been:

1. By serving both as an inspirational leader and a catalytic agent to activate others.
2. By helping to encourage and plan social functions, school-wide, grade-wide, department-wide.
3. By providing for proper rewards and praise for outstanding contributions from members of his staff.
4. By suggesting and encouraging democratic, co-operative grade-wide and department-wide practices such as the establishment of practices within each grade of syllabus revision, of text-book selection, testing, etc.
5. By selecting and encouraging the utilization of audio-visual aids to instruction, and providing adequate facilities for reviewing them as well as classrooms equipped for showing them. This makes for better and more attractive teaching and hence better morale.
6. By stimulating teacher growth and promotion in service by such efforts as wise and just assignments, rotation of difficult tasks whenever justified, by providing opportunities for professional enrichment at conferences, institutes, workshops.
7. By encouraging the sharing of responsibilities through representation of teachers on school-wide Teachers' Councils.

#### HOW CAN THE PRINCIPAL IN HIS CAPACITY AS SCHOOL SUPERVISOR CONTRIBUTE TO CONTINUOUS PROFESSIONAL GROWTH?

It has been said that a good secretary and a competent clerical staff can "run" a school in the absence of the principal; but only he can serve his

greatest function, which is that of the over-all school supervisor of instruction. No secretary, clerk, or executive assistant can free him from that legal and professional responsibility. How, then, may he best discharge it, so that all his teachers will want to develop to their maximum abilities? Some successful practices by principals in elementary schools of various types and sizes follow:

1. Participation as a co-equal (not as a status leader) in grade and department conferences. He functions as a leader, however, when his superior training, knowledge and experience are called upon for resolving difficulties.
2. Encouragement of a faculty committee to plan and prepare the agenda for faculty conferences.
3. Effective classroom visits, conferring with his teachers after the visits, and writing supervisory reports from which the teachers will profit.
4. Encouragement of and arrangement of in-service courses and teacher workshops on problems of general interest to teachers concerned.
5. Establishment and maintenance of adequate teachers' professional library.
6. Encouragement of the publication of bulletins, preferably written by members of the staff on such phases of school activities as curriculum development, methodology, utilization of audio-visual aids, guidance procedures, adequate evaluation and testing procedures, trips and excursions, and reporting to parents.
7. Making teachers aware of the latest in professional books and magazines through abstracts, summaries, and reviews.

In addition to his educational philosophy, establishing the proper school climate, and his supervisory activities, the principal, through the proper organization and administration of his school, can contribute to his staff's professional growth. Many a fine plan for improving instruction has gone down the drain because the school was not organized or administered properly for effective implementation of such a change in program. Successful ways in which principals have organized and administered their schools to permit and promote teacher growth are:

1. By convincing his staff that he plays no favorites; that he is interested in their welfare; and genuinely welcomes and plans to utilize suggestions for improvement.
2. By making use of the machinery of democratic participation in such areas as the suggestion box, the use of periodic anonymous questionnaires, and planning committees for various school activities.
3. By fair and wise distribution of assignments, both of the onerous and favorable variety.
4. By providing administrative support for implementing desirable (and legally and professionally desirable) policies arrived at by his committees of teachers in such administrative matters as: budgetary allowances, school and community resources, bell schedules, pupil grouping, time and nature of testing programs.
5. By encouraging teacher participation in the planning of assemblies, extra-curricular activities, community projects.
6. By making the physical conditions for teaching as favorable as possible through room assignments, maximum use of the school plant, adequate and

equitable distribution of supplies; reducing classroom interruptions; issuing term calendars of activities and necessary routines; by keeping clerical work down to a necessary minimum; by an effective program of assisting the teacher with class discipline.

7. By establishing and maintaining a program of articulation and correlation through a proper guidance set-up which makes for unity of purpose and a sense of accomplishment.

8. By helping to set up good programming of pupils and teachers; for example, avoidance of over-sized classes; establishing equitable teaching loads; reducing to a minimum a "floating" teaching program.

9. By establishing techniques of periodic surveys as bases for a long-range program of self-improvement and professional growth.

All these elements, therefore, go into the making of an effective program of continuous professional growth for an entire faculty: educational philosophy of the principal; school climate; supervisory program; organization and administration of the school. Any one of them, if inadequate at the start, or poorly implemented, will interfere materially with the ultimate objective: the maximum development personally and professionally of every member of the school staff so that the greatest numbers of pupils may derive the best from the educational program. There are enough elementary schools in the country, where all elements are working harmoniously and effectively, to convince the new principal that he works best who works with the best of the most on his staff.

#### THOMAS ALVA EDISON AWARDS

Each year the Thomas Alva Edison Foundation gives awards to those local television and radio stations that best serve youth in their community. The purpose of these National Station Awards is to encourage the raising of standards in television and radio locally throughout the country. Each of the awards will be a scroll recognizing the local television and radio station as a recipient and an Edison Scholarship of \$1,000 to be used toward college education. Each station will then award this scholarship to a high-school senior in the community who has been selected as meriting the scholarship by an appropriate committee of local school officials. Each local group is invited to nominate a radio and/or television station in its community that is best serving American youth. Each nomination should be accompanied by a statement of 500 to 1,000 words describing the achievements of the particular radio and/or television station in serving youth in the local community. The Committee on Station Awards will then review the recommendations, secure additional information about the nominated stations, and make the selections. This information should be sent directly to the Committee on Station Awards, Thomas Alva Edison Foundation, 8 West 40th Street, New York 18, New York.

# The Emerging Comprehensive Secondary School in England

GLADYCE H. BRADLEY

THE comprehensive high school, uniquely American in origin, and largely a product of the twentieth century, has been subject to many criticisms and changes in the course of its development. However, it is the general belief that the comprehensive high school plays a definite role in meeting the educational needs of a democratic society, and it appears to be peculiarly adapted to a society characterized by a relatively high degree of social mobility, or at least a society in which the existing and persisting philosophy of equal educational opportunities for all persons at all class levels prevails, and where education is considered not only an end in itself but a means to achieving high socio-economic status.

On the other hand, not a few educators voice the opinion that the comprehensive high school is not adaptable to those nations in which the class structure tends to be rigid, and where vertical mobility is severely limited. Great Britain, where the comprehensive secondary school is in process of emerging, is a case in point. Historically, the class system in British society has been rather rigid and vertical mobility occurs infrequently. Consistent with this class structure and the pre-eminent status of the aristocracy, education has tended to be aristocratic rather than democratic. In recent decades certain social forces have accelerated vertical mobility in a more democratic fashion; and the democratic forces have had considerable influence on educational thought at the present time. The latter has been evidenced in the emerging comprehensive secondary school which, with its broad curriculum, is a somewhat radical departure from the traditional grammar school or the English "public school."

In view of the radical departure from the traditional, it is only natural to expect the comprehensive secondary school to evoke considerable comment. It might be of interest, therefore, to review some of the reactions toward the emerging comprehensive secondary school in England.

More recently the "silent social revolution" in England has produced numerous effects on the education of the citizenry. Outstanding among these are the Education Act of 1944—the extension of governmental participation in matters of education finance, the extension of state inspection of schools, increase in state grants for education, and the abolition of fees in schools maintained or assisted by local education authorities.

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The Education Act of 1944 extended the range of free education by prohibiting fees in maintained secondary schools and required each local education authority to provide secondary education for all pupils. The keynote of this act is that, so far as is possible, all children shall receive the type of education best suited to their abilities and aptitudes. In order to fulfill this principle there are three main alternative types of education available to children of eleven years and older: that provided by the grammar school, by the modern school, or by the technical school. A fourth type, the comprehensive school, is at present emerging.

A forerunner of the comprehensive school is found in several progressive schools which developed between the two wars. While these schools were not all alike, they were interested in producing the "right kind of man." The Progressives believed that the way to produce the "right kind of man" primarily was by creating the right kind of environment, since "education is experience and a . . . school's function is to provide experience in the most helpful form." Consequently, they tried to make their school resemble the world not as it is but as it ought to be. Ideally, this meant the inclusion of all classes, but the progressive schools were too expensive for all strata of the population to be represented. The schools were, however, co-educational. They promoted friendship and quality between masters and children and avoided organized punishment. Though handicapped by requirements for entrance into universities' examinations, they attempted to place emphasis on the teacher as a guide in aiding the pupil to discover knowledge. The total enrollment of the 23 progressive co-educational schools recommended by Pekin was about 3,500. At that time about 36,000 pupils were being educated by the "public" schools.<sup>1</sup>

At present there are about 14 comprehensive or multilateral schools with a total enrollment of about 11,000 pupils and 31 bilateral schools with an enrollment of approximately 13,000 pupils. Otherwise, the organization of secondary education maintained by the state remains much the same as the post-primary education before 1944. The pre-1944 secondary schools have been renamed Secondary Grammar Schools, and entry to them is determined by a test, taken between the ages of 10 and 12, usually in English and arithmetic, and an intelligence test. Primary school records are used by some authorities, in addition to the test, for the purpose of assigning the pupil to a secondary school. The provisions for children who are unsuccessful in this differ in the various areas. A second examination is provided for a limited number of grammar school places at age 13. About 17 per cent remain in all-age schools, mostly in the county districts, and in voluntary schools. The majority, however, attend secondary modern schools, previously known as senior schools. In addition, there are the secondary schools which were formerly called Central Schools and which provide courses in commerce and trade subjects. These

<sup>1</sup>Mack, Edward C., *Public Schools and British Opinion Since 1880*, New York: Columbia University Press, 1941, p. 379.

schools are mostly in the larger towns, as are the 300 Junior Technical schools, entry to which is still, in the majority of cases, at the age of 15. In towns which have these commercial and technical schools, the most able children are skimmed off three times before leaving the rest in the modern schools.

However, Development Plans of Local Education Authorities indicated that serious consideration is being given to developing new comprehensive schools. Under Section II of the Act of 1944, each LEA had to submit a Development Plan for Primary and Secondary Education to the Minister of Education, showing how the LEA proposed to carry out its duties with respect to the nature of education to be provided; of the schools that were to be continued, together with the details and cost of necessary alterations; of the new schools needed; of the schools to be closed; and of the voluntary or county status of each school.

Nine of the forty-four counties included in a survey by the Fabian Society<sup>2</sup> indicate that they will provide comprehensive schools, and two of these will provide nearly all secondary education in comprehensive schools. Three of the 66 county boroughs included in the Fabian survey are developing comprehensive schools only, and three more will provide bilateral and comprehensive schools. The six county boroughs which will have all their secondary school places in bilateral or comprehensive schools will not have any grammar or technical schools.

The London County Council plans to build large comprehensive schools of 1,000 to 2,000 places each, and to conduct experimentation and research to determine the most effective means of their operation. But under the 1944 Act, the Council has no power to make building grants to the existing voluntary aided secondary schools or to enlarge voluntary controlled schools for the purpose of providing places for country school pupils. In an effort to develop schools as comprehensive in nature as possible, the Council proposes to provide as near as possible to each of them a country school which will provide accommodation necessary to complete the unit. The voluntary schools have been providing grammar-type education. According to the Fabian survey, there are to be 67 comprehensive schools with 114,250 places and 36 county complements to them with 54,900 places.

A great deal of vigorous discussion centers around the feasibility of developing the comprehensive school. Briefly, the arguments for the comprehensive school may be summarized as follows:

(a) Such schools are the best foundations of a really democratic society. R. H. Tawney, in speaking of the division of young England into two nations, provided the dictum that "educational policy does much to bridge the chasm. It does much also to perpetuate and deepen it." The London County Council is concerned about the social effects of the segregation of pupils in the tripartite divisions and points out that:

<sup>2</sup>Thompson, Joan, *Secondary Education Survey*, Fabian Research Series, No. 148, London.

We tend to love exclusive aristocracies, and when the aristocracy of wealth went out of fashion we created a new one which we were pleased to think was an aristocracy of brains, that is, of those who excel in book learning. We need to create a much wider aristocracy—of those who excel in the art of social living. Education is not a matter only of intellectual achievement. It is a matter of all-round growth and development, physical, intellectual, social and spiritual, and it seems indefensible to categorize schools on the basis of intellect only. It is, for example, a matter of first-rate importance to modern society that life in school should promote a feeling of social unity among adolescents of all kinds and degrees of ability.<sup>3</sup>

The Labor Party<sup>4</sup> shares the viewpoint of the London County Council, but maintains also that the LEAs should be free to organize secondary education of the standard which they wish should be maintained. On the other hand there are those in this party who maintain that such matters as the organization of secondary education should not become the matter of political controversy.

(b) It is estimated that the comprehensive school will result in economy in finance and will be more convenient. Some sparsely populated counties like Westmoreland are adopting the schools for this reason. It is argued that the additional expense of a few more miles of traveling will be balanced by the increased economy of larger schools. At the same time these areas have to face the increased cost of staffing. It is suggested, for example, that a comprehensive school for 500 pupils would have less than twenty pupils in the sixth form, and the ratio of staff to pupils would have to be high for an ample variety of courses to be provided.

(c) It is claimed that the three distinguishable types of children, as described in the Norwood Report, do not exist. The Norwood Committee attempted to justify the organization of the secondary school into three types of schools—grammar, technical, and modern on the basis that there are three distinguishable types of pupils.

The grammar school type is one: who is interested in learning for its own sake, who can grasp an argument or follow a piece of connected reasoning, who is interested in causes . . . He is interested in the relatedness of related things, in development, in structure, in a coherent body of knowledge . . . The technical school type is one whose interests and abilities lie markedly in the field of applied science or applied art . . . He often has uncanny insight into the intricacies of mechanism whereas the subtleties of language construction are too delicate for him. To justify itself to his mind, knowledge must be capable of immediate application, and the knowledge and the application which appeal to him are concerned with the control of material things . . . The modern school pupil is one who deals more easily with concrete things than ideas . . . He is interested in things as they are; he finds little attraction in the past or in slow disentanglement of causes or movements. His mind must turn its knowledge or curiosity to immediate test, and his test is essentially practical.<sup>5</sup>

<sup>3</sup>*The Organisation of Comprehensive Schools*, London County Council.

<sup>4</sup>*A Policy for Secondary Education*, The Labour Party.

<sup>5</sup>*Curriculum and Examinations in Secondary Schools*, Report of the Committee of the Secondary School Examinations Council, London. H.M.S.O. 1941.

Should the child be fitted to the school or should the school be adapted to the child is a constant query. Arguments point out the lack of psychological justification and evidence to support the classifications. Educators, psychologists, parents, pupils, and the labor party decry that selection at the age of eleven plus is a source of dread and frustration to both child and parent. While it may be possible to select the exceptionally bright or exceptionally backward child the majority of children are not in either category. Children develop at different rates and their development is affected by the environment and opportunities. Access to a variety of courses and opportunity to work with children of a higher cultural standard may in itself be an important educative factor at the secondary level. Or as Karl Mannheim so succinctly points out "in a changing society like ours only an education for change can help"<sup>6</sup> and the "educational aims of society cannot be adequately understood as long as they are severed from the situations that each age is called upon to face and from the social order for which they are framed."<sup>7</sup>

The number to attend each type of secondary school should not be determined by arbitrary percentages of the age group. The number of children admitted to grammar schools is not governed solely by the ability of candidates for entry but also by the number of places available. This varies widely in different parts of the country.<sup>8</sup> The matter of selection to attend a grammar school is of tremendous importance when we consider that from this group will be chosen those who will attend the universities and teacher training colleges and will later enter into the professions, higher governmental posts, and better posts of various kinds. The child's vocational future is in a very real sense largely determined by his selection for grammar school. Questions are raised as to whether or not the aptitudes of the child are sufficiently developed at eleven plus to be relied upon for selection. Finally, all children would benefit if during the entire period of their secondary education, they shared the facilities, both educational and social, of the comprehensive secondary school.

(d) The lack of parity of esteem among the various secondary schools needs to be remedied. It is suggested that this can be accomplished through the leveling up of the quality of the popular schools. By far the most important secondary institutions are the "public schools" with their origins in the Renaissance and strongly influenced even today by the classical traditions. However, these schools have been slow in developing science and modern language courses. While the grammar schools provide less social prestige than the "public schools" they have modified their curricula to provide varying degrees of experiences in science and modern languages.

<sup>6</sup>Mannheim, Karl, *Diagnosis of Our Time*, London: Kegan Paul, Trench, Trubner and Co., Ltd., 1948, p. 59.

<sup>7</sup>Ibid., p. 74.

<sup>8</sup>*A Policy for Secondary Education, The Labour Party.*

At the bottom of the social scale lies the secondary modern school. Pupils, teachers, and parents by and large regard it as an institution for educational "cast-offs." While some very modern and well-equipped buildings have been constructed in this group, the vast majority is housed in inadequate and obsolete buildings. At the same time the "public schools" and grammar schools have been successful in attracting the most efficient teachers and the modern schools have been forced to employ those of lesser qualifications.

(e) The existent schools have been of service chiefly to future intellectual, political, and professional leaders and have failed to provide effective training for leadership in technical, scientific, industrial, and commercial fields as well. The lack of science teachers for the secondary school is one of the reflections of this condition.

On the other hand there are numerous arguments presented in support of the *status quo*. These include:

(a) The separate grammar, technical, and modern schools, corresponding with the organization of post-primary education before 1944, and therefore this form of organization of secondary education is easier and more economical for the LEAs who had already effected reorganization for pupils over 11, in accordance with the Hadow Report.

(b) The grammar school tradition is one of the best things in English education and should be preserved. Supporters of this idea maintain that tradition is not to be sacrificed for the sake of administrative uniformity or in pursuit of a theory of educational equality. It is feared that it would be extremely difficult to retain the tradition of skills in the world of ideas in an organization influenced by the practical and utilitarian, and in which those with few capabilities in learning would outnumber the others by perhaps five to one. The Sixth Form could not play as useful a part in a comprehensive school as in a separate grammar school because only a small proportion of the pupils would be on the grammar school "side."

(c) Technical and modern secondary schools should remain separate also. There is a need for a distinctive technical and unique modern type of education to develop and this development can occur freely in separate schools—free from the influence of grammar school atmosphere. It is better for those children who are in the upper ranges of ability in the modern school to be in such a school because more motivation is provided.

(d) It will be geographically and financially impossible for rural areas to develop comprehensive schools. Such schools will result in traveling and boarding on an inordinate scale and at a tremendous cost.

(e) The matter of redistribution of staff and pupils of the existing grammar schools would result in a decline in the standard of scholarship in the academic courses for a number of years. The charge is repeatedly

made that the comprehensive high schools of the United States fail to develop high standards of scholarship.\*

(f) It will be so large that it will be difficult, if not impossible, to find sites large enough since it is estimated that each would require eight or nine acres. Large enrollments are undesirable. In education, which is a social and moral process, bigness and efficiency do not necessarily go hand in hand. The headmaster will not "know each pupil" and staff cohesion will be reduced. Small schools can perform better the tasks of character and personality development.

(g) Finally, the comprehensive school will not assist in the process of raising the children born into one social class to climb to the level of those born into another.

The arguments for and against the development of the comprehensive secondary school, as summarized here, are by no means always raised by liberals or reactionaries. They represent, rather, a growing concern and real fears about the education of youth. They represent, in part, a recognition that it is more difficult to educate for democratic virtue than for aristocratic virtue. They evidence, further, the attempt to develop principles and pre-concepts on which to establish the new school. In England, as well as in the United States, the whole truth about the comprehensive school has not been found out. And we must beware of what John Stuart Mill calls "the deep slumber of decided opinion." As he says in his essay "On Liberty":

The peculiar evil of silencing the expression of opinion is that it is robbing the human race, posterity as well as the existing generation; those who dissent from the opinion, still more than those who hold it. If the opinion is right, they are deprived of the opportunity of exchanging error for truth; if wrong, they lose, what is almost as great a benefit, the clearer perception and livelier impression of truth, produced by its collision with error.

\*Bibby, Cyril, "Some Thoughts Concerning the Comprehensive School," *Education Bulletin*, May 6, 1953, p. 1.

## Guidance Practices Used by Junior High School Home-room Teachers

JOYCE SORENSEN  
and LESTER BEALS

**E**DUCATORS are aware of the place of the home room in the school program. Most are also aware of the fact that the home-room program has not accomplished all that was expected of it, not because of the program itself but due partly at least to the lack of training of those teachers and administrators who have worked with it. There is still hope for the home room, but also a realization that if it is to function as it should, teachers and administrators must be thoroughly acquainted with its philosophy and program.

The home room is closely related to the guidance philosophy and program in the good school. Some educators, including guidance people, would say that the home room should be the heart of the guidance program. In fact, in some school systems it has been made the center of a successful program. Of course, where this is true the home room is given considerable emphasis in terms of study and time allotment and teachers are well acquainted with their guidance responsibilities.

Recognizing the importance of the home room in the guidance program, the writers instituted a study to determine some of the methods and tools used by home-room teachers. A questionnaire was sent to 500 junior high-school home-room sponsors in Texas; 347 replied to this.

The sponsors were asked to indicate the extent to which they used the following guidance methods: group conferences; individual conferences; parent consultation; home visitation; case studies with staffs; and referrals to specialists. They were also asked to indicate the frequency with which they used the following tools: tests—achievement, intelligence, diagnostic, special aptitudes, personality, interest inventories; autobiographies—life narrative, diaries, etc.; cumulative record folder, and observation with anecdotal records. The extent that methods and tools were used was indicated by responses of "very often," "often," "sometimes," "never" and "no response."

In addition to this information the writers attempted to determine whether training in guidance had anything to do with the extent to which guidance tools or methods were used. Questions concerning train-

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ing were included in the questionnaire. It was assumed that home-room teachers who had some work in guidance would make better use of such methods and tools.

In tabulating the responses, the respondents were divided into two groups. Group A included those sponsors having at least nine semester hours in counseling, testing, and home-room management. Group B consisted of those sponsors who had no semester hours in these areas.

The survey indicated that the group conference was one of the two most common methods used; 64% of all sponsors used it often or very often. Topics most commonly discussed in group conferences were: social problems; moral problems; and choice of subjects. 57% of the sponsors in Group A used this method as compared to 33% of Group B.

The other important method being used by home-room sponsors was the individual conference. About 98% of those sponsors in Group A used this method at least some of the time, while 90% of the Group B sponsors used it some. The difference in the two groups is indicated by the frequency of usage. 70% of Group A used the individual conference as a means of guidance "often" or "very often" as compared with 55% of Group B. Most frequent topics discussed are as follows: unsatisfactory marks; student relations; choice of subjects; educational plans and information; and student-teacher relations.

The parent conference was not used too extensively by either group. Only about 22% in both groups used it "often" or "very often." A large number in both groups, 76% in Group A and 68% in Group B, used it "sometimes." It is recognized, of course, that most home-room teachers would be rather hard pressed in arranging conference time for parents.

Home-room teachers were not able to make many home visits, according to this survey. About 6% in Group A made home visits "often" or "very often" and 5% of Group B. 64% of those in Group A visited "sometimes," and 34% in Group B.

Another question asked was concerned with the extent to which the case conference was used with other staff members. Over three fourths of the sponsors used it "sometimes" or "often," with a mere 2% using it "very often." The difference in the use between Group A and Group B is rather insignificant except that 14% of Group A never used this method as compared with 23% of Group B.

A majority of sponsors seem to see the need for assistance in handling cases as indicated by the extent of referrals. About 72% of Group A made at least some referrals; 53% of Group B. In most cases referrals were only occasional.

In terms of some of the common tools accepted and used as a part of guidance, it was found that the group of sponsors studied were making some use of such tools as tests, autobiographies of different kinds, cumulative records and anecdotal data. About 85% make use of achievement and intelligence tests; 50-60% use such other tests as diagnostic aptitude,

personality, and interest inventories. A comparison of the use of tests reveals a significant increased usage of Group A over Group B.

A good majority, approximately 65%, use some kind of an autobiography to secure information about students. The "Life Narrative" seems to have been the most popular type used. Teachers in Group A consistently used a greater number of the different types of autobiographies over Group B.

The survey revealed that the cumulative record folder is used by a majority of the sponsors, (approximately 85%). There seems to be little difference between the usage by Groups A and B.

The last tool to be mentioned is the anecdotal record. In this survey it was found that only about 26% of the sponsors used it "often" to "very often." Over 30% never used it and 12% left this answer blank. The two groups were approximately the same percentage wise in all categories except in the "never" column. Here, about 50% of Group B never used the anecdotal record as compared with 23% of Group A.

According to the findings of the survey, most of the sponsors seem to recognize the appropriate method of guidance to various types of problems. The difference shown, however, between the extent of the use of methods and tools in Group A and Group B seems to indicate the advantage of further educational guidance courses for the home-room teacher. How effectively these guidance methods and tools were used, however, has not been determined. As stated before, the group conference and individual counseling methods are favored by nearly all sponsors, the group conference being used especially for topics common to all, and the individual student interview lending itself best to personal plans and problems of the individual student. It was interesting to note that such important topics as guidance in vocational plans, health habits, recreational and leisure-time activities, boy-girl relations, and home problems, did not seem to be given much emphasis in either of these methods of home-room guidance. It is possible that emphasis on vocational guidance is left for the senior high school, that emphasis on health habits is left to health education classes and that home problems are left to the school counselor, but the emphasis on recreational and leisure-time activities and on boy-girl relationships seem to be omitted by all. This possible omission neglects two important needs of the early adolescent period, that of understanding his own development and physical needs and that of understanding the social relationship of boys and girls.

Parental consultation, home visitation and case studies all seem to be confined more to a few students, who perhaps present difficulties in scholastic achievement or in behavior or personality. The use of home visitation and case studies is, of course, limited by the sponsor's time. Parental consultation, however, could be used more effectively by sponsors to improve the relationship between home and school. The use of the referral method also seems to be neglected, perhaps because sponsors

do not feel qualified to determine whether a child needs the attention of specialists, or because of the attitude taken by the other faculty members toward referral, or because the sponsor has no sources of referral. Whatever the reason, there is a need for greater understanding of its usefulness to adolescent guidance.

The comparison of Group A and Group B, in each case, yields the fact that those sponsors who are better prepared showed a significant increase in the use of guidance methods and tools. Those in Group B who did use these methods and tools, in general, followed the popularity trend of the general group in their use. This may indicate that although sponsors may not have adequate preparatory courses, they may, if their desire to help the adolescent is sincere, study enough on their own to qualify themselves in the use of practices.

#### STATISTICS ABOUT EDUCATION

**S**IGNIFICANT educational facts are reported by the U. S. Office of Education about this school year.

(1) One of every four persons in the United States will be attending school or college this year.

(2) More pupils are attending high school than ever before in our nation's history, and more students are staying in school to be graduated. Ten years ago, 78 per cent of young people 14 to 17 years of age were enrolled in school; today, 87 per cent in that age group are enrolled. Ten years ago, 40 per cent of young people in school stayed to be graduated; today 55 per cent stay.

(3) Re-organization of administrative units, which reduces the number of school districts and results in consolidation of many small schools into larger and more efficient school plants, usually calls for increased pupil transportation. The U. S. Office of Education reports that more than 10 million children will be transported to and from school in approximately 170,000 vehicles during 1956-57. This means that almost one-third of all the nation's public school pupils ride to and from school each day in public school busses or other vehicles at a cost of 375 million dollars.

(4) Fifty per cent of those who are graduated from high school go on to college as full-time or part-time students.

(5) Resources for the education of young people beyond the high school will have to be considerably expanded in the years ahead. According to the Office of Education, college-university enrollment will increase from its present 3.2 million to about 6.4 million by 1970.

(6) The 1950 Census showed that unemployment rates are about 50 per cent higher among young men who drop out of high school than among those who are graduated.

## Math Survey Shows Many Study Algebra

AUBREY E. BILGER

**A**RECENT survey conducted by C. A. Brooks, principal of the Lincoln Junior High School in Salina, shows that 66 per cent of the junior high-school pupils in 28 schools study Algebra I. The same study reveals that 50 per cent of the high-school enrollment is studying geometry. The basis of comparison was a three-year period by years: 1935-1936, 1945-1946, and 1955-1956. In the survey, schools with enrollments from 130 to 2,900 reported the status of the two courses.

In the 1935-1936 group, it was reported that nine schools required algebra and, ten years later, seven of the same schools made the same requirement but only required algebra in 1955-1956. Nearly all mathematics teachers in the several schools report that general mathematics should be taught along with algebra or immediately after. Most teachers agree that the ninth grade is the time to teach algebra.

There is little difference in the enrollment during the comparative years, except during the years the respective courses were required. At present, the highest percentage of enrollment is found in a school of 600 pupils in which 90 per cent are enrolled in algebra while in a school of 2,900 the percentage drops to 35. Generally algebra is offered the freshmen or sophomores with the preference going to the ninth-grade pupils. This is the case at all times when the subject is required.

The story is similar for geometry except that it is not required and never has been in the past twenty years. Before that time, two of the smaller schools required all sophomores to take plane geometry.

At the present time a school of 1,400 in the junior-senior high school leads the geometry parade with an enrollment of 67 per cent. One smaller school has but 32 per cent studying geometry. The enrollment for Salina shows that 65 per cent of the students are enrolled in geometry and 80 per cent are studying algebra.

Most teachers in their personal reports are agreed that geometry should be taught to all college preparatory students. There is little difference whether it should be taught in the sophomore or junior year in senior high school. Many reasons were offered for teaching geometry, but the one reason which was offered by all teachers was mental discipline.

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## Teaching Pupils To Read

LEE C. DEIGHTON

LAST December, the afternoon newspapers of New York City presented to a horrified citizenry the appalling statement that something like 54 per cent of the city's ninth-grade students are not reading at ninth-grade level of achievement. A bit less stridently the *Times* on the following morning pointed out that those colorful test scores were, in part, the result of the way tests are constructed and statistical terms defined. Thus the ninth-grade norm by definition is that level of ability below which half of the country's ninth-grade students are known to fall.

This statistical discoloration, of course, puts the achievement of our high-school students in a somewhat less lurid light. But it does raise other questions. If half the students at any grade level are reading below the norm for that grade, how far below are they? What happens to them when they are given reading materials at their grade level of difficulty? At what point do they meet frustration? What happens to anyone who is required to read for any extended period of time in frustrating materials?

You have seen some of the widely quoted claims that present-day youngsters are reading more efficiently than their parents did twenty-five years ago. You have not seen other studies which show the parents in a somewhat better light, but these studies do nonetheless exist. It is my belief that we should be neither disheartened nor encouraged by reports of this kind, for there is reason to believe that comprehension, which is the essence of reading skill, does not really yield to statistical analysis. Please do not misunderstand me. I am not attacking the validity of reading tests. They are the best means we have at the moment of measuring the reading ability of large numbers of people in a reasonable length of time.

But irrespective of published reports, favorable or unfavorable, it is common experience at every grade level of our educational system to find students having trouble in reading assigned materials. This has always been the case and, in all likelihood, it will always be the case. Communication of any content more significant than that found in comic strips is a subtle and complicated business at best. The problem is to discover what we can do to make both ends of the communication process more efficient.

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This is an address delivered by Lee C. Deighton at the Conference on College Composition and Communication held at Hotel Statler in New York City.

In the year since this conference last met, the reading experts of the nation have been busy defending their methods and their rationale. On the whole, their defense may be judged successful, yet a careful reading of their published statements shows a disquieting note. When the experts refer to the research in their field, they do so with a notable lack of conviction.

Read the reports of this research and you will see why. Does the study of phonics make better readers? Research findings point both ways. Does reading in differing content areas call into play differing skills? The research points in both directions. Does the child entering the elementary school have an oral recognition vocabulary of 2,500 words or of 6,000 words? You can find studies that give both answers.

From evidence of this sort, the conclusion might easily be drawn that a new program of rigorous basic research is needed. And in fact, some of the reading experts do plead for better controls, for larger samples, for more careful analysis of variable factors. No doubt better research and new research are wanted, but perhaps before that research gets under way, it would be wise to give more thought to the nature of reading and to the structure and operation of the language being read. What is wanted at this time is a sharper definition of what reading is and a clearer understanding of what it involves.

There are two aspects of reading to which the members of this conference are uniquely equipped to bring clarification and enlightenment. The first is the area of language operation; the second is the area of language structure.

#### THE AREA OF LANGUAGE OPERATION

We shall find a hint of what is needed in the reports of reading programs that appear in a steady flow in our education journals. It has become almost a fixed pattern in these reports to assert that the students involved have been improved to the point where they now read at such and such speed with eighty or ninety per cent comprehension. Since these statements seldom describe what kind of material is read, we are unable to judge whether the speed is appropriate.

But more to our present point, these statements imply that comprehension is a unitary thing, measurable in percentages. It is my belief that this view of comprehension is both erroneous and dangerous.

By general consent in the reading field, comprehension is taken to mean perception of meaning. Beyond this broad characterization, there is little agreement among reading experts as to what comprehension covers. This is a fundamental uncertainty, a crippling uncertainty, which will hinder progress in reading instruction until it is removed.

To deal with this obstacle, we may profitably turn to a study of how our language operates—what kinds of meanings it transmits and how it transmits them. The following analysis is neither new nor original, and I am quite sure it is not complete. But its application to the teaching of

reading has been too long delayed. And if it seems sensible, it can lead us to a satisfactory working definition of reading comprehension.

Perhaps we can agree that at the lowest level, comprehension has to do with the simple sense of the passage. Exactly what did the writer say? Did he say a million or a hundred million? Reading at this level is a matter of "yes or no," "true or false." At a step higher, we are concerned with the author's generalizations. What does he conclude from the evidence presented? What are his big ideas?

There is a curious tradition in reading circles that readers should seek out *the main idea* of a passage. The longer a passage is, the more hazardous this undertaking becomes. It is the nature of terms and propositions that the more content they cover, the less content they hold. There is a great deal of good writing in which a number of equally important ideas are presented. A general statement which embraces all of them must necessarily be limited to what they have in common. An exercise in finding the main idea of a passage which contains several ideas must inevitably lead to neglect or misunderstanding of important differences.

The data and concepts in a passage are held together by the writer's organization. This organization is, therefore, a third significant aspect of meaning. Where is the writer going? What is he driving at? How has he arrived at a particular stage of his argument?

In part, the writer achieves organization by setting up relationships among his data and concepts. He ties them together by cause and effect, by time order, by space order, by showing likenesses and differences. These relationships are an important part, perhaps the adhesive part, of the writer's meaning.

The perception of likenesses and differences is a basic act of intelligence. We understand the unfamiliar only in terms of the familiar. It is one function of metaphor, of analogy, of contrast and comparison to describe the new in terms of the old. Perception of these devices and understanding of their function are surely involved in getting the meanings of a passage.

There is another level of meaning which the reader gets by interpretation—by his own organization of the material presented. He must consider, for example, not only what is said, but also what is left unsaid. Meaning is not only stated outright; it is also suggested.

The reader interprets the writer's purpose and his tone. He figures out the writer's attitude toward his readers, toward himself, and toward what he is saying. He gets this kind of meaning more from *how* a thing is said than from *what* is said. And if he ignores the manner, tone, and purpose of the writer, he is in danger of being victimized by rhetoric.

Any serious discourse may have a rhetorical meaning as well as a logical and a metaphorical meaning. All three are parts of what the writer is saying to the reader. Each requires a different kind of evaluation.

The reader may ask not only "What is the writer's evidence?" and also "How good is this evidence?" and "Does it warrant the writer's con-

clusions?" Or if the writer is expressing judgments, "Who is this writer? How does he know? Why does he say what he does?" These questions are evaluative. They lead to understanding in depth of the printed word. They are, in short, the means by which evaluation becomes a stage in comprehension.

Meaning is a many-faceted thing. Or to put it another way, any written passage may contain a variety of meanings stated and implied. These meanings are conveyed by suggestion, by organization, by structured relationships of data and concepts, by metaphor, and by analogy.

The reader who seeks to comprehend must be sensitive to all of these varieties of meaning and to the devices by which they are transmitted. Comprehension, in short, is not unitary but diverse and multi-phasic.

Verbal communication is at best an uncertain means of conveying feelings, facts, and ideas. Let us remember that meaning derives from experience. The meanings that a word has for me are different from the meanings it has for you because our experiences are different. The possibility of any one person ever getting the whole of another person's meaning are slight indeed. For this reason, it is not meaningful to say that anyone reads with eighty or ninety per cent comprehension. All that may be said is that at a given time a reader was able to answer a number of questions which a particular examiner felt to be pertinent to a particular reading selection.

For this analysis, there is no scientific proof. It is my belief that we are not here in an area where proof is appropriate. We are in an area of definition, and definitions are not subject to proof.

I am sure that many of you have already traveled far down the road that I have been pointing out. If you have, I am sure you have been asked, "Where does reading stop and reflection begin?" I believe this is a false question. It can be dealt with by another act of definition. I would suggest that we define reading to embrace reflection. We would say, then, that reading and reflection are inseparable, and that comprehension can be attained only by thinking.

#### THE AREA OF LANGUAGE STRUCTURE

Now for the matter of language structure. One seeks in vain in the research in reading for any of the elements of linguistic analysis. To anyone familiar with these two fields, the omission is almost incredible. The linguists among us are concerned, in part at least, with identifying these formal elements of language which signal meaning. The application of this information to reading instruction seems almost self-evident.

You have, no doubt, witnessed a persuasive display of Dr. Whitehall's kinescopes showing how linguistic analysis may be used in improving composition. Will those of you who are authors forgive me for noticing at this time that beautiful and eloquent little book also by Dr. Whitehall, *The Structural Essentials of English*? I do so because I believe it contains information of critical importance in the teaching of reading. The

first service of linguistics to reading is to sweep away the false notions of the structure of English which have become almost superstitions. May I give you examples?

Essentially the first problem in reading is to persuade the reader that the spoken words to which he normally responds correctly can be portrayed by printed symbols. He enters school with an oral recognition vocabulary of unknown extent. The first goal in reading is to help him recognize and identify this vocabulary when he sees it in print. It is for this purpose that phonics are introduced in reading instruction. As part of this phonic instruction, it has become a firmly established principle that when "two vowels appear together in a word, usually the first has a long sound and the second is silent."

It is also firmly established as a principle of instruction that the ability to divide a word into syllables will aid the pupil in pronouncing an unfamiliar word. To instruct this ability, the pupils are informed "that a single vowel at the beginning or in the middle of a word or syllable is short." He is also informed that "if there are two consonant letters between two vowels in a word, the first syllable usually ends with the first of the two consonants."

As to syllabification, *The New World Dictionary* states with candor: "Neither the system of division used in this dictionary nor any other yet devised really squares with the observable facts of the English language. The separation of syllables in this and similar books is merely a graphic convenience intended to help printers to be consistent . . . Meantime, we continue to use, and unfortunately to have represented to us as factual, a system which is neither logical in itself nor based in any degree on the ascertained characteristics of our language."

As to what happens to two adjacent vowels, we may consider a list of 762 easy words compiled by Professor Dale for use in predicting readability. Despite the limitations of any such list, this one is a useful instrument. The words listed are in all probability among the most common and the easiest confronted by young readers.

Analysis of this list discloses 154 in which there are adjacent vowels. In 102, or sixty-one per cent of these words, the first vowel is not given a long sound, nor is the second vowel silent. As to single vowels appearing at the beginning or in the middle of words, they may be considered short only by abandoning the sounds in English that linguists identify with the *schwa*.

The first service of modern linguistics to the study of reading then, is to clear away superstitions. A second service is to give a true picture of how the language operates.

It is difficult for anyone not thoroughly versed in the linguistic patterns of English to offer a blueprint of what can be done. I have three suggestions, and others will occur to you.

The first concerns word-groups. Meaning in English is not usually conveyed by single words but by words acting in groups. The reader's

problem is to discover in a sentence which words go with which. This is not a matter of chance, but a matter of the innate structure of the language. Meaning cannot be conveyed in English except through the channels of this structure.

The linguist can tell us the shape of these word groups and the positions in which they are found. He can describe their constituents, their configuration, and the structural signals which identify them.

Does it not seem likely that an inexpert reader, made acquainted with these basic patterns within the English sentence will be able to cope more efficiently?

A second example of what may be done pertains to intonation patterns. It is a common experience in secondary schools to find that as soon as students leave off reading text materials that are written in the straightforward colloquial style of speech, they encounter difficulty. The structures of formal written English are more complex than the structures of spoken language.

This is a matter of common experience. We do not often begin a spoken sentence with a long introductory participial phrase. There are few occasions upon which we use the construction *upon which* in speech.

I should like to present as a hypothesis the possibility that the more complicated structure of formal writing produces problems in intonation for the inexpert reader. Here again, the linguist can advise and suggest teaching procedures.

One last example of what may be done. It would be instructive to have a linguist's critique of the sentences which appear in the books from which primary school pupils read. These pages are filled with expressions such as: *Look, John, look. See, Jane, see. Run, Dick, run.* This is not the way people speak. They do not end an imperative on a rising inflection. They do not say, "Run, Dick, run." They are more likely to say, "Let's get out of here."

#### EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH

**F**OCUSING upon the problem of staffing the Nation's schools and colleges, the Office of Education is planning a nation-wide survey of the economic, social, and professional status of teachers. During the fall of 1956 the Office of Education will publish a report on costs of attending college. This study is based on budgets of 15,000 students in 110 institutions.

Another project on college student retention and withdrawal will be completed in November. Report of the study will be published early in the spring of 1957. This will be a report on the success and failure of some 13,000 students who entered college in 1950. These studies will provide valuable data for those agencies concerned with manpower problems of the nation and with improving the holding power of our institutions of higher education.

## The School Library

HELEN R. SATTLEY

**I**N ARTICLES and discussions concerning the school library the trend is toward the library as a materials center—a center which will organize, maintain and service slides, films, recordings and tapes as well as books and magazines. Some would include the school textbooks and the museum exhibits.

For most school libraries this materials center is still in the article and discussion stage. There are very few, by comparison to the total number of libraries, already in existence. However, so much has been written and discussed about this hypothetical center that librarians are beginning to take this development as a matter of course, even though so often they, themselves, can see little likelihood of being able to carry on this extended program in their own libraries.

The ideal of such a materials center is certainly a worthwhile goal, but too much of the discussion concerning it is hypothetical and impractical. It is asking too much of the school librarians involved and—what is even more important—is asking for a curtailment of book programs in our schools at the very time in our cultural development when books are meeting their greatest challenge.

It is time we stopped and looked at the obstacles and objections to this development. It is time we took stock of the school libraries in the country to see if they have had the personnel and the time necessary to develop the programs on which they are already embarked before setting before all of them impossible goals which, in the end, may weaken to a critical degree any contribution they may be able to make to their schools.

Perhaps the most important things is to examine goals, first. What is it we want our school libraries to be—storehouses and servicing agencies or dynamic teaching agencies? There are many of us who believe that the latter is the more important and that the organizing and servicing of materials is the framework on which we base our teaching programs.

It is right here that we must emphasize our differences from the college libraries and stop lumping remedies and plans which are "good" for the one and "inevitably" good for the other. We are dealing, here, with two distinct kinds of programs. Although college libraries are doing more teaching today than they have in the past, their teaching function is not

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one of their foremost reasons for being—and to many elementary and secondary school librarians, teaching is one of their foremost reasons. (By "teaching" is meant the formal and informal teaching—work with classes in the library and in the classroom; work with individuals for research and reading guidance; work with individual teachers so that complete integration with class work results; work with curriculum committees and subject chairmen; in fact, a dynamic program which makes the library a real part of most activities of the school.)

If the school librarian is to take over the cataloging and maintenance and servicing of slides, films, recordings and tapes as well as textbooks (this last has invariably become mere clerical checking and has been astutely avoided by alert librarians for many years) and add these to an already full book cataloging and maintenance and servicing job, where will time come from for the teaching program which is so essential? If besides the cataloging and maintenance, the selection of the audio-visual materials is added to the selection of books and magazines and pamphlet material, how will we make a 12 hour day stretch out into 24, 36, and 40? (Have you ever *counted* the hours it takes during a school year to keep a pamphlet file current?)

Let us face the fact that all the way across the country school libraries are in such a pioneer era that one librarian is servicing 1000, 2000, 3000, 4000 students and doing his own cataloging besides. Of course, there "should be" central cataloging, but it is coming slowly. Of course, there "should be" clerical help, but it is usually easier to sell a school system an additional professional position than a newly created clerical one. Of course, there "should be" time off for the librarian to do his book selection and his book order, but in school after school, the librarian does even his cataloging at a reference desk in the main reading room with one eye cocked for the student who will need his help and both ears alert to the general atmosphere of the room.

In line with a philosophy of the librarian as teacher comes the need for the library schools to add to the training program or prerequisites of the school library student courses in curriculum, psychology of children and adolescence, and practice teaching in classrooms and libraries. Thus to an already full schedule of courses, more essentials are added. But the time for library training is still the same, at most, a fifth of a five-year program or a full fifth year, and some very definite prerequisites in education. Fortunately, there are often, today, basic requirements in audio-visual courses in many education schools and departments, thus enabling most students who enter a library school with a minor or concentration in education to be well grounded in an understanding of audio-visual programs. Moreover, in many of the library schools, instruction in audio-visual materials and equipment is a part of many different library school courses. Thus school librarians should be quite well prepared to understand and cooperate with any audio-visual program being carried on in their schools.

Again, however, this is additional subject matter added to the library school curriculum. That more time for specific courses in audio-visual materials and instruction can be spared from one year of library school training is questioned by many of us who have been concerned with library school training within the past 5-10 years. As more "essentials" are added to the library school courses, it is too often the book courses which get crowded out.

Isn't it quite ironic that at the very time that well trained audio-visual specialists are beginning to be available for the schools that school librarians' book knowledge is being dissipated?

Here, then, are some very definite obstacles inherent in our existing school libraries and training programs which hamper the development of school libraries into materials centers: 1) the impossibility of having, in most existing libraries, the cataloging, maintenance and servicing of slides, films, recordings, tapes (not to mention equipment), textbooks, library books, magazines and pamphlets and have time left over for the teaching program; 2) the impossibility of having an intelligent and thorough selection and ordering of all such materials done by the present school library staffs who usually have a full schedule of classes and students; 3) the recognition that book programs must not be sacrificed as other responsibilities are added to the school library; 4) the impossibility of adding indefinitely to the training courses of the prospective school librarian; and 5) the very imminent danger that the librarian soundly based in book knowledge will be lost to our school systems and to succeeding generations of school children.

These are the obstacles at the present time and they will be with us for a long time to come. We must be aware of them as we move forward and see that the best of our present library programs are preserved and protected as our responsibilities are increased.

But as we move forward, there are, also, some objections. The first ties up with the first obstacle and is that too often in the trend toward materials centers, the emphasis of the school library is on the organization and maintenance function rather than on the teaching function. Enough has been said above concerning this.

A second objection is that not enough recognition is given to the audio-visual specialist who is emerging as an important helpmate. He believes that his is a teaching function and that the audio-visual program is a dynamic one, just as we believe our library program is dynamic. We should be two special teachers working together for the good of the school. Co-operation will differ from city to city, even from school to school. In many school systems, there is need of two thoroughly developed fields, the library and the audio-visual ones, and these systems should be encouraged to finance and develop both. For either group to be anxious about the boundaries of the other's territory and to try to set up a single field where two really exist, is to act defensively—is to ask for curtailment

of services we should not expect or tolerate in education today. Two highly developed fields should be expected in such school systems.

If it is practical for both fields to be combined into one materials center the librarian needs to rely upon the audio-visual specialist for selection of materials in his own fields. If the librarian can rely upon him, one of the great obstacles to the development of a materials center can be met to a great extent. If, further, the audio-visual specialist can assume responsibility for the organization of his materials, as well as the maintenance of his equipment, the library teaching program will not need to be sacrificed so that the audio-visual teaching program may flourish. The teaching program of the one is as important as the other. Here are areas where the give and take will have to be based on good will, but the positive programs which will result when each field is reinforcing the other will be worth the effort.

A third objection is the possible trend toward a deadly library environment for school children—one which threatens to outdo our most dreadful memories of stuffed owls on top of bookcases and every other book a frightening tome which damped young readers' enthusiasm. Are we, in our enthusiasm for a functional materials center, sometimes getting a curriculum center for teachers mixed up with a functioning center for children?

The school library has an important future. But let us be aware of the pitfalls as we move toward our goals.

#### OCCUPATIONAL OUTLOOK HANDBOOK

THE United States Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics, has recently revised the *Occupational Outlook Handbook*. This comprehensive *Handbook* includes reports on each of 433 occupations of interest in vocational guidance, including professions; skilled trades; clerical, sales, and service occupations; and the major types of farming. Each report describes the employment trends and outlook, the training and qualifications required, and earnings and working conditions. Population and employment trends, and trends in the broad industrial and occupational groups are given as background for an understanding of the individual occupations.

The *Handbook* is used in counseling, in classes on occupations, in counselor training, and as a general reference. The *Handbook*, composed of 103 photographs, 85 charts, and 575 pages, is available at \$3.25 from the Superintendent of Documents, Washington 25, D. C.

## The Extra Curriculum: Some Steps Toward Integration

ROBERT C. McLEAN, JR.

THE ideas expressed in this article are the "oak seedling" which grew from one teacher's irritation with classroom interruptions, with having four students *excused* for some *activity* on a day he had scheduled a mid-term examination, with having students *summoned* to sit in the counselor's office for a full period awaiting five minutes of counseling, and with having one or two students a period "busy" decorating the gym for a dance. Some administrators may feel that they run a "tighter ship" than the one to which this particular series of interruptions was attributed, but, from time to time every administrator has to face the problem of making a choice between two (or more) goods. What will be *best* for the student? Some administrative leaders have prepared for these problems, but many administrators do not seem to possess the foresight to have done so. The present development is not presented as a total solution. In fact, many situations are not met by it at all, but it may help some administrator realize that he can do something about the problems of his school by the simple process of taking thought, of divorcing his mind from the petty irritations of minute-to-minute administration, and by developing a year-to-year program.

Three activities which have not been adequately integrated with the total school program in some high schools is counseling, clubs, and, in some ways, home rooms. The reader may object to this assertion, but, if he considers the organization of his own home rooms, he will probably discover that students are selected for them by class, by alphabetical order, and by sex, in some cases. All of these classifications are administratively convenient, but the question may be raised, "Do they make sense, educationally?" Perhaps there might be a means of organizing home rooms, so that they will contribute to the education of the students, rather than to the execution of the administrative routine of handling large numbers of students as expeditiously as possibly?

Perhaps you object to the assertion concerning counseling? Unfortunately, counseling has not been the "panacea" for educational woes that its original proponents claimed it would be. Some schools have been quite successful with their counseling program, and for these schools,

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these words are, of course, not applicable. In other cases, however, the counseling program is as well-run as the home rooms, by class, by alphabet, by sex. Such a program may be extremely educational, with good counselors, but the chances of having the best possible counseling under such an organization is in inverse ratio to the variety which the curriculum offers the students. The counselor must be a "jack-of-all-trades," counseling students of wide interests (and no interests) with unequal skill. Some schools do have special counseling for special interests. It is this type which is advocated here.

Finally, there are few schools which can point to their club programs and claim they are, in full measure, part of the "planned learning experiences" of the school. As this is, probably, the most easily recognized of the extracurricular activities which is truly "extra" and long in need of "integration," the present plan will start with an extension of an old idea for clubs.

First, every activity which takes place at the school should contribute to the students' education. This small sentence is the "postulate" upon which this argument is based. A corollary to this is that the contribution which these activities make should be planned; that activity for incidental learning is not learning at all. A club program, then, to be educational, must be organized about an educational purpose. One of the educational purposes of most schools is preparation for future occupations. This is further subdivided into several areas, but one of these areas is "occupational orientation," or, if you please, "occupational information." The first point of the present plan, therefore, is to organize clubs centered about the students' occupational interests. There is nothing new about this idea, in itself. Such clubs would be extended to include "Future Homemakers," and for those with no special interests, "Explorers Clubs," which would explore various occupations.

These clubs should not have their vocational interests drawn too narrowly. "Future Builders of America" could include all of the building trades. One organization would probably serve for all kinds of future nurses, physicians, surgeons, dentists, and related occupations. The breadth of the occupations represented in any one club would be determined by that simple administrative problem, pupil-teacher ratio. Clubs could be sectioned, or more restricted occupational areas could be defined. Whatever the problem, no general solution can be offered; the local situation would have to determine the final outcome.

Having instituted these occupational clubs, all students would be expected to become members of them. Students should be permitted to change clubs at the time they change classes. These clubs should be given a regularly scheduled time and place of meeting, and all should meet then. No one should be kept out of class for club work, and no one should be kept out of club for class work.

What should be the functions of these clubs? Primarily counseling, vocational and educational. They should give the student something

upon which he can base his plans for his future. They should extend his vision beyond the present to let him see that the present contributes to his success or failure in the future. It should give him motivation and purpose in his educational activities as well as in his club activities.

Why cannot these ends be met by a class? To a large extent they can. But, one of the things this article proposed to "integrate" was the club program. If this activity is organized as a club program, it immediately becomes more attractive than another class requirement. The form is more flexible than special classes would be. There is no need for grading, for individual evaluation, or for any of the other paraphernalia of formal class organization. Furthermore, this form lends itself to student-directed counseling, to exploration by students of various educational and occupational possibilities, without the onus of "teacher telling." The teacher would be an adviser, a counselor, but not a lecturer.

So far, the presentation has dealt only with what some might call "another extracurricular activity." Although the clubs have been given some educational purpose, their complete integration has not been accomplished. At this point, let us bring up counseling and home rooms. Let the club become the home room, and the club adviser the counselor. Here, is the crux of the matter. The home room has gained an educational purpose. The adviser can concentrate upon one area of interest. The counselor has the students regularly, so that they are available to him for both group and individual counseling, without taking them out of someone else's class. The clubs become the core of the curriculum, and the school is centered upon preparation for the future. Philosophically, such an orientation will be classified, by those who like to attach labels to things, as realistic, vocational training-centered, objectionable to the advocates of liberal education and, for more obscure reasons, to advocates of individual growth, who object to anyone's planning anything.

Up to this point, none of the ingredients of the cake have been very new or startling; the plan, after all, is only a reorganization, not a new organization. Another benefit, however, can be worked into such a program. This is a benefit which has been exploited in only an occasional school, but which has become, of late, one of the areas of agitation in public school circles. This is the area of community interest. With the vocational orientation of the club program, community sponsors for each club can be solicited. Labor union, business groups, professional societies, women's clubs, in fact, any adult group of which the students might become members when they are adults could be responsible for helping the programs of the appropriate club. These people could give vocational and educational guidance from their personal experience; they would give to the whole program a reality, a connection with life outside the school which would be otherwise lacking.

What benefits to "classroom interruptions" could such a program bring? As was pointed out, summonses for counseling would be eliminated. Club periods which left half the students in classrooms would be

eliminated. Club field trips, which affected only a small part of the student body, could be expanded, with the help of the sponsoring groups, so that one day could be set aside for all clubs to take field trips—and most of the teachers, as club advisers, would be away, too.

In closing, this plan is not presented as another program to add to present programs, but as a reorganization of several present programs to make them serve the purpose of the education, more adequately. The explanation which has been given, of course, is but a skeleton of a complete solution suitable to any given school. It is hoped, however, that some administrator may have had his own thinking stimulated, and that he may have found here an idea from which he can develop his own reorganization. As is found in mathematics texts, "The balance of the proof is left to the student."

#### COLLEGE BOARD ADVANCED PLACEMENT PROGRAM

**T**HE Advanced Placement Program will again be operated this year. It begins with college-level courses given in secondary schools to able and ambitious students. Educational Testing Service administers the advanced placement examinations, directs the reading of the examination papers, and conducts the research program. A fee of \$10 is charged for taking the advanced placement examination. Examinations are available in 12 subjects: English Composition, English Literature, French, German, Latin, Spanish, American History, European History, Mathematics, Biology, Chemistry, and Physics. They are prepared by a committee of six teachers—four from colleges, one from a public school, and one from an independent school. The examination is three hours long and is principally of the essay type.

A secondary school which wishes to undertake advanced placement examinations does not need to secure permission to do so, but it should be sure that it understands the program. Secondary-school teachers who are setting up college level courses should read the course descriptions in the booklet *The Advanced Placement Program*. They are also advised to get in touch with teachers in schools which have advanced work and with appropriate departments in the colleges which many of their students enter. In schools which cannot provide college-level courses, students may do college work through individual instructions through a tutorial nature in connection with a regular course. Full information may be secured by writing to the Program Director, Advanced Placement Program, 425 West 117th Street, New York 27, New York.

The examination will be administered during the week of May 13-17, 1957, at conveniently established centers throughout the country. These centers are listed in the *Bulletin of Information for the Advanced Placement Examinations*. Registration should be made by the school for its students during February and March by filling out an application and paying the \$10 fee for candidates. Any school which expects to have one or more candidates for the Advanced Placement Examinations in May, 1957, or which is interested in the program, should communicate with the Program Director not later than October 15, 1956. Each candidate's grade or grades will be reported in mid-July to the college which he will attend. The grade or grades will also be reported to the candidate's school. A copy of the essay or free-response part of the examination and the candidate's answers to this part of the test will be sent to the candidate's school in the fall.

## Co-curriculum Activities or Study Halls

PAUL A. SCHOTT

ONE OF the main topics during the recent White House Conference on Education was, "What Should Our Schools Accomplish?" As might be expected, the delegates agreed that our schools should continue to stress the basic courses, such as mathematics and communication skills. However, in addition, it was urged that emphasis be given to such fields as emotional growth, social adjustments, and citizenship responsibility.

The big question which should confront educators today, then, is whether or not we can continue to stress our basic courses while eliminating the continued alarming number of drop-outs from the nation's high schools. Each year some seven hundred thousand youngsters continue to leave their classes before graduation.

It would be almost impossible to estimate the number of pupils who have been held in high school by the interest and magic of extracurricular activities just as it would be almost impossible to estimate the number who have given up because of being forced to sit in a study hall, period after period, trying to read an assignment but with little or no reading comprehension. It is true that reading is a major problem in many of our schools today and that if the student had the reading ability, he probably would not be bored in study halls, yet our youth has an abundance of energy and what better way to use this energy than in some activity or program of real interest to the individual.

In looking at the high school which has the nine-period day with forty-minute classes, it is easy to see what will happen to some youngsters taking a regular course during their freshman year. Usually they will be limited to four subjects with one period for lunch. This will leave four study-hall periods, with perhaps certain days of the week during one study-hall period being devoted to physical education, or home room, or perhaps a library assignment. This leaves our student with usually at least three study periods of forty minutes each during each and every day of the school week. If he is of average intelligence or better, he will probably finish his assignments in one or two periods at the most, with time on his hands during the remaining period or periods. Little wonder his mother asks why they don't give homework in school anymore. If he is below average intelligence, he generally will have difficulty reading his assignment without assistance and will become bored readily and ultimately will end up just sitting or more probably ending up in trouble

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or cutting the study hall period entirely. Thus we have more youngsters with nothing to do at night, and perhaps adding their number to the already growing list of juvenile delinquents.

This does not mean that study halls should be eliminated or abolished but rather that, when they fail to fulfill the purpose for which they were intended, then it is time a careful evaluation be made and limitations be set up. With forty-four per cent of each class failing to complete the full four-year course, some changes are not only needed but necessary. It is not only discouraging and despairing, but perhaps contagious, for our teachers to watch young America march into a study hall, look at the clock (if any), and plop himself down into a seat and go through the motions of studying or, if in a particularly rebellious mood, not ever go through the motions of studying.

Likewise this does not mean that special education courses in our regular high schools should be set up as this can be done in a far more practical manner such as that carried on in the Harry E. Wood High School in Indianapolis, Indiana.<sup>1</sup> Rather, there should be a sincere and enthusiastic wide range activities program which will permit an extremely wide choice to the student. Since the tendency is to recognize the positive educational value in the extracurriculum and since there is an extremely active and dynamic promotion of these activities in most of our schools in this country today, let's make these activities available to the multitude in our school and during regular school hours. Every youngster should have the opportunity to participate and take part in at least one activity of his own choice, and any worthwhile pupil-initiated project should be recognized and promoted. A place can readily be made for this pupil project in place of a study hall period which is definitely not serving the purpose for which it was intended, while retaining other study periods or programs which are of benefit in the regular school program.

Although this will not solve all students' problems of boredom in the regular school curriculum, it would at least provide one interest in the daily program to which he would look forward with some desire. It might even provide the motivation for the non-reader and create within him the desire to learn more about the project of his interest and thus perhaps solve a reading problem. It is amazing how the poor reader can read, if the proper desire is present.

What better way, then, to emphasize emotional growth, social adjustments, and citizenship responsibility than an intensive program of student activities; a program of action in which the student actually participates in a project of vital interest to him, as compared to a program in which for many hours out of each week he sits under guard in a study hall, wasting time and accomplishing nothing. Here the only concern of the "sponsor" is to see that he does not create a disturbance, as a general rule. There is little wonder that about 20 per cent of our young people

<sup>1</sup>Herman L. Shibley, "Attacking the Drop-out Problem," *Journal of the National Education Association*, January 1955 pp. 24-25.

drop out of high school who have the basic ability to do average or better college work. Although they give various reasons for dropping out, such as "preferring to work," "military service," "financial reasons," and "dislike for the school program," it all adds up to one thing—they really don't like the school program, otherwise they would not have joined the military nor would they have gone to work.

In conclusion it can be said that a truly dynamic and enthusiastic student activity program would make the regular curriculum more interesting, eliminate boredom, aid in solving the drop-out problem, and help combat juvenile delinquency.

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## The Book Column

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### Professional Books

BARBER, J. E. *Evaluating School Guidance*. Buffalo 3: Foster and Stewart Publishing Company, 210 Ellicott Street. This book presents an evaluation of the guidance program in the East Aurora, Illinois, High School. Chapter One is a review and summary of guidance study that has been conducted over a period of years. Chapter Two describes the East Aurora's guidance system. The next chapter discusses a five-year follow-up of graduates. The remaining five chapters present, in order, effects of guidance on those attending college, broadening the curriculum, summary and conclusions based on the evaluation study, and implications for the system.

BEAUCHAMP, G. A. *Planning the Elementary School Curriculum*. New York 11: Allyn and Bacon. 1956. 307 pp. Building stronger elementary-school programs is a basic issue in every American community. School administrators and teachers, more than ever before, are striving to work co-operatively with lay groups in the improvement of our elementary schools. Here is a book to help develop the fundamental understandings and procedures needed to provide adequate educational opportunities for our children. The entire approach of this presentation is based upon the foundations of our educational heritage; the role of the school in society; the nature of our children; our understanding of how they learn; and concepts of authority and responsibility in democratic living. Whether you are a teacher, school administrator or a school patron, you will want to read about his modern approach to the sociological and cultural understanding needed to further co-operative curriculum planning in our schools today.

BUNTING, J. E., editor. *Private Independent Schools*. Wallingford, Connecticut: James E. Bunting, Publisher, 12 North Main St. 1956. 921 pp. \$7.50. This directory and guide to the private independent school field, now in its ninth edition and thirteenth year, is published annually for school people and parents. In a general sense, the book is designed to give its readers a broad conception of what part the private schools—below the college level—play in the scheme of American education. More specifically, the purpose is to present enough comparative material about individual schools so that parents who, for one reason or another, want private schooling for their sons and daughters can make reasonably intelligent selections.

The book has two principal parts: the descriptive articles, which run from two to four pages in length, and the brief descriptive listings. The listing pages are open to all private independent schools which maintain membership in one or more of the 25 educational associations comprising the National Council of Independent Schools. Each year the association's rosters serve as an annual checklist; and each year proofs of the listings are sent to the schools for corrections, thereby keeping the material accurate and up-to-date.

The descriptive articles, which are considerably longer and more detailed, are also reviewed and revised annually and are rewritten entirely whenever marked changes are made in the personnel of a school or in the school's academic program.

The descriptive articles are arranged alphabetically from Abbot to Wyoming Seminary. The listings are arranged alphabetically within the states and these are followed by the District of Columbia, territories of the United States, Canada, and a few foreign countries. In the forepart of the Directory are: a comprehensive list of all the schools; statements and memberships of the educational associations; and, on pages 63 through 69, an index to the descriptive articles which facilitates the locating of suitable schools with regard to location, sex, and age grouping.

**CANTON, NATHANIEL.** *Dynamics of Learning*, third edition. Buffalo 3: Henry Stewart, Inc., 210 Ellicott St. 1956. 316 pp. This book is an analysis of what is meant by a "highly skilled, professional teacher." It also tries to answer several basic questions. What happens, realistically, when living students and living teachers meet together in a classroom in the teaching-learning process? Do teachers really help students to develop or do they increase the fears and anxieties and timidities the students bring to the classroom? Does not most traditional teaching occur in a wilderness of waste logic and does not most "learning" consist of verbal ping-pong? What, precisely, is the source of the confusion in education and the restless dissatisfaction felt by so many teachers, parents, and students?

The author in his presentation applies the insights and understandings which psychiatric clinicians have found helpful in diagnostic and therapeutic procedures. He believes that the good teacher must understand what is realistically involved in the teaching-learning process. He says "Without this understanding, which includes the skill to put it to use, the teacher can talk, but the student is unlikely to learn in any vitally significant sense." This book contributes toward an understanding of how a teacher can help the student to want to learn and to want to become a responsible and self-disciplined individual. In it the author analyzes what is meant by a highly trained, professional teacher.

**DALLAVAUX, JOHN.** *Your Child and Mine*. New York 1: Vantage Press, Inc. 1956. 59 pp. \$2. What mistakes do parents make in rearing their children? In this book, the author points out their major errors—and makes clear how such wrongheadedness is affecting the youth of our nation.

After hearing Mr. Dallavaux lecture upon some of the ideas contained in this book, the late Henry Ford approached him. "If you will print that lecture just as you gave it here tonight," the great industrialist said, "I will buy a million copies to distribute among the parents of our country. If they will take what you have to say to heart and act upon it, there won't be any juvenile delinquency."

Henry Ford died before he could carry out this project. Meanwhile, juvenile delinquency has increased—and responsible parents are awake to the fact that there *must* be something wrong with their system. What is it? The author cites three major parental blunders: doing too much for the child, for the parent's own satisfaction; giving the child too much in order to win his love—an equally self-centered objective; and backing him in every situation—whether he be right or wrong. What is the remedy? The author stresses, with compelling force, the

undeniable value of the good, oldfashioned virtues of discipline and responsibility for children as well as for adults.

DAVIS, J. B. *The Saga of a Schoolmaster*. Boston 15: Boston University Press. 1955. \$4.50. Dean Davis's career parallels that of many successful Americans. He climbed steadily in the field of secondary education, during its years of growing pains and attendant problems. Keenly aware of difficulties, he explains clearly and simply how they were solved. When sweeping changes in curriculum, organization, and administration took place, the author had his part to play in them all. Therefore, the book is largely the inside story of the progress of secondary education from 1890 to 1950, illustrating how such advancement is brought to pass in America.

As a pioneer in the field of guidance and one of the founders of the National Vocational Guidance Association serving as its first executive secretary, he has recorded historical material not heretofore published. Also, as one of the founders of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals, he reveals its origin and early struggles. Dean Davis has in recent years been cited and honored by both of these Associations.

This is of practical value to all prospective secondary-school teachers and administrators. It should be available in all of our teacher training institutions, and would interest all concerned with the development of secondary schools in America. It makes clear the American way of progress in education as we are now just entering a new era of change and reorganization.

Chapter titles are: Heredity and Environment; The Adolescent in a City School System; Teenage Experiences; Student at Colgate University; College Life in 1890's; A High-School Teacher: Teacher's Extracurriculum; Initiation of a High-School Principal; Impetus of New Building; Junior College Movement; Pioneering in Organization and Methods of Guidance; Pioneering in Promotion of Guidance Movement; State Supervisor of Secondary Education; A University Professor of Secondary Education; Secondary Education in Europe; Deanship of School of Education; The American Way of Education; Retirement, and Rewards of the Schoolmaster.

Paul E. Elicker, Executive Secretary of the National Association of Secondary School Principals, a department of the National Education Association states:

"Our esteemed Doctor Jesse B. Davis, the author, describes in the chapter entitled 'The American Way of Education,' the most significant milestones and educational gateways of the progress of American secondary education during the last half century. His account is interesting, vivid, and accurate. Dr. Davis, however, must be charged with some serious omissions in not recording his own significant and influential part in movements and studies in American secondary education."

DIFFOR, J. W., and M. F. HORKHEIMER. compilers and editors. *Educators Guide to Free Films*. Randolph, Wisconsin: Educators Progress Service. 1956. 569 pp. \$6. This sixteenth annual edition is a professional, encyclopedic service on multisensory learning aids. It replaces all volumes and supplements which have preceded it. It is a complete, up-to-date, annotated schedule of *free* films—bringing compiled information on free films for immediate use within the covers of a single book. Many films rented to schools by other agencies are free from sources in this guide. For educational as well as financial reasons, free films from industrial, government, and philanthropic organizations have rendered and continue to render a valuable contribution to the curriculum.

This edition lists 3,453 titles of films, 766 of which were not listed in the previous edition. All new titles are starred. For sixteen years, the guide has grown—from 102 pages, listing 671 titles, to this volume of 3,453 titles. Perhaps of equal significance, the improvement in the quality of free films has paralleled the increase in the number offered. This *Guide* provides rich supplementary visual materials at a minimum cost. In this edition Dr. John Guy Fowlkes adds another article, "Films and Common Sense," to his popular series of significant articles on contributions of free films to education.

DIFFOR, J. W. and M. F. HORKHEIMER, compilers and editors. *Educators Guide to Free Slidefilms*. Randolph, Wisconsin: Educators Progress Service. 1956. 194 pp. \$5. The eighth annual edition is a professional, cyclopedic service on slidefilms (filmstrips) and slides. This service is devoted entirely to free slidefilms and free slides. It is a complete, annotated schedule of free slidefilms—bringing compiled information on free slidefilms for immediate use, within the covers of a single book. For educational as well as financial reasons, free slidefilms from industrial, government, and philanthropic organizations have rendered, and continue to render, a valuable contribution to the curriculum by supplying information not available elsewhere.

This eighth annual edition lists 631 titles, including 38 sets of slides. In 1946, only 82 free slidefilms were available. Since that time, the quality as well as the number of free slidefilms has made most significant gains. Of the 631 titles, 90 were not listed in the seventh edition. All new titles are starred. All told, more than 40,000 separate frames or pictures or miniature posters from 94 different sources are included. Thirty-one of the slidefilms listed in this *Guide* may be retained permanently by the borrower, to start his filmstrip library, or to add to his present library. This *Guide* presents a wealth of supplementary visual materials at a minimum cost.

FRANK, L. K. and MARY. *Your Adolescent at Home and in School*. New York 22: Viking Press. 1956. 344 pp. \$3.95. This new book by the Franks may command even greater readership than did their famous *How To Help Your Child in School*, which won the *Parents' Magazine* Honor Award in 1950. For they deal here with adolescence, and no subject is more clouded with concern in the minds of parents today. Much is now known about adolescence, but what has been needed is a non-technical synthesis of current knowledge, presented to and for parents. The authors provide this, and their discussion is generously illuminated by their own practical experience as parents.

This book sorts out the complexities of the adolescent's situation at home and in school. His growing up causes him to see his own family members in a new light; his physical and psychological development is proceeding dramatically; his school experience brings new tasks, new ambitions. These primary changes in the young person's life can produce infinite variations of behavior, for many reasons, and are the source of parents' bewilderment. Why is Jane suddenly so hostile to her mother? Why does John persistently stay out late? Why does Mary start failing her favorite subject? Why does Jim prefer to have serious talks with the neighbor rather than with his father? Each parent must find the answers for his individual adolescent, and know what is important to tolerate or change, and how. The virtue of the book is its patient, friendly probing into all possible whys and wherefores, and it gives parents the broad understanding that will prompt the action or reaction most helpful for their own child.

GOPSILL, G. H. *The Teaching of Geography*. New York 17: St. Martin's Press, 108 Park Ave. 1956. 328 pp. \$5. Students who are preparing to become

teachers of geography will find assistance of two kinds in this book. First, there is a statement of those principles which form the substance of sound practice and which have been derived from the foresight of the philosopher-teachers over the last half-century. And second, these principles are supplied in practical form, in terms of lessons which have been given. Neither principles nor applications are intended to be exhaustive, but it is hoped that both will help a teacher to clarify his own ideas and to develop distinctive personal techniques which keep abreast of modern practice and anticipate the trends of the future.

Modern methods of illustrations, both aural and visual, are dealt with, and much attention is given to the "incidental" aids to geographical teaching in the form of topical events, films, general reading, journeys out of school, ship adoption, and so forth. There is a separate section concerned with the planning of geographical work—arranging a syllabus and equipping a room. The text is illustrated with numerous figures in line and halftone. There is a comprehensive bibliography for each chapter, and four appendices give additional information relating to sources of geographical material and the operation of optical apparatus.

HALVERSON, P. M. *How Fares Freedom in American High Schools?* Syracuse 10: Syracuse University Press. 1956. 62 pp. \$2.50. The author's question on page 11: "Do we prepare intelligent young voters for free exercise of the franchise by restricting the practice of freedom of their own activities while in high school?" should challenge readers. The author points out that the curriculum is frequently most responsible for restrictions on freedom: "—there occurs within most high schools the spectacle of adolescents attempting to grapple with significant problems of growing up in a difficult age and, at the same time, submitting to learning experiences, many of which are logically inappropriate for both adolescent needs and learning efficiency." The hope for this situation is somehow to remove the restrictions on creative teachers, a problem which the author develops at some length on pages 16-22. After removing some of these restrictions (the mandates, the state courses of study, and state-wide examinations) he feels optimistic: "I have faith that there is within the educational profession both the democratic leadership and the free followership which will make the secondary-school program come alive for our youth."

The author also deals with extracurricular activities which at the high-school age are sometimes as restrictive as the curriculum itself. He finds however that much more freedom has developed over the years in this field than in the curriculum itself. The author's treatment of high-school fraternities (pages 24-26) will delight most parents and school administrators. The final part of the book deals with the responsibility of the professional staff and the teacher in this whole problem. Here the author's wide experience and knowledge of the factors which are necessary to promote the right climate for freedom are very apparent. His practical suggestion for administrators should prove invaluable.

*Handbook of Private Schools.* Boston 8: Porter Sargent, Publisher, 11 Beacon St. 1956. 1,232 pp. \$8. Featured in this new edition of the annual handbook is an introduction written by twenty-six leading school administrators, covering such topics as General Education at the Secondary Level; The Junior College; Co-educational Schools; Remedial Reading; Testing and Guidance, etc. For the first time the introduction to the *Handbook* has been written by private school men and women who present a picture of their work and objec-

tives. The new edition gives complete and up-to-date accounts of more than 2,000 leading schools throughout the country. The schools are arranged geographically by states and grouped alphabetically under cities and towns. Included are maps giving the locations of leading schools; special listings of all schools providing remedial and make-up work; 100 vocational and educational guidance agencies; in addition to the many standard features of the book. It is completely indexed.

JONES, E. S. *Occupations Unlimited*. Buffalo 3: Foster and Stewart. 1948. 258 pp. This volume is intended as an answer to those who look around them and say "there are not enough jobs." True, some occupations are hard to enter. Many require long periods of training. On the other hand, employers are looking continually for the right person for a good opening, or are ready to recognize an entirely new field when a useful service is evident.

The book is non-technical, intended for the reading of high-school and college students, or their parents. It should also serve to stimulate guidance workers in high school and the personnel staff of a college. It furnishes a new type of job analysis for personnel offices in industry or the man who wishes advancement on his own merit. In the last chapter particularly, there are illustrations of developing fields of occupation which are hardly recognized in some communities. New budgets may be necessary, or different attitudes towards the good life. These are only a few suggestions among many that might be made.

LIPPMAN, H. S., M.D. *Treatment of the Child in Emotional Conflict*. New York 36: McGraw-Hill Book Company. 1956. 308 pp. \$6. Dr. William C. Menninger recommends this new book as follows: "Doctor Lippman has done an amazing job in presenting the very wide range of psychiatric problems of childhood, replete with interesting and excellent illustrative cases. The book is focused on the central theme of treatment and is in line with our best knowledge on this subject. This book could well be a 'must' for all workers dealing with troubled children—or in Doctor Lippman's language, the child in emotional conflict."

From the author's 25 years of experience in the Amherst H. Wilder Clinic comes this warm and understanding book which describes his point of view toward therapy. Here, reflecting his human and particular interest in problems of neurotic illness, character disturbance, and delinquency in children, are the Clinic's own treatment methods presented through case material, along with the theory behind their use.

Here is psychoanalytical theory as it applies to child behavior, written for the reader who is not psychoanalytically oriented. From the concepts of analysis the author has drawn methods of evaluating ego strengths and weaknesses; the use of dream analysis to grasp a child's conscious and unconscious fantasies, fears, and conflicts; the significance of anxiety and the methods for locating its source; and the significance of the unconscious role of the parents in their child's emotional adjustment.

The author emphasizes the team approach of casework, clinical psychology, child psychiatry, and group therapy. He firmly believes that one does not have to be a physician in order to do expert therapy in the field of emotional disturbances of children.

Of special interest is the chapter on "obsessional neurosis in children," a subject on which there are very few articles in the literature. The novel approach to "prevention" emphasizes the measures and resources which have

proved to be effective in lessening conflict but which are not now generally provided in most communities.

MACMILLAN, D. L. *School Camping and Outdoor Education*. Dubuque, Iowa: William C. Brown Company. 1956. 166 pp. \$3. The purpose of this book is to present material which will be helpful to the camp director or others responsible for planning and administering the school camp and outdoor education programs. It will be of value in training a staff to understand and carry out its jobs most effectively. The material has grown out of the firsthand experience, over a period of years, of a camp director; from her training of student teachers; from an association with many counselors in boys and girls camps; and from her own training for camp and outdoor leadership through the Girl Scouts and the American Camping Association.

MARTY, FERNAND. *Methods and Equipment for the Language Laboratory*. Middlebury, Vermont. Audio-Visual Publications, Box 54. 1956. 88 pp. This booklet is divided in five chapters. Chapter One discusses the mechanical, the magnetic, and the optical methods; various types of machines; audio-visual equipment; future language laboratories; maintenance; how to prepare a tape recording; and laboratory installations. Chapter Two discusses languages are dual systems of expression; native-like audio comprehension is the hardest skill to acquire; good audio comprehension facilitates the acquisition of the other skills; spelling is only a minor aspect of language learning. The next chapter presents techniques for the teaching of the audio form; techniques for the teaching of reading and spelling, and methods for the basic course. Chapter Four describes three types of language activities—cyclic, applied, and specialized. The last chapter describes techniques usable in the classroom and in the laboratory. An appendix lists sources from which discs for the teaching of grammar and/or conversation may be secured.

McCONNELL, M. L., and D. H. WEST, compilers. *The Children's Catalog*. New York 52: H. W. Wilson. 1956. Available on the Service Basis, this new ninth edition presents a fully cataloged and annotated list of some 3,000 books carefully selected by a representative group of experienced librarians and specialists in children's literature. Here are the titles which over a period of time have proved most useful in children's and school libraries, both large and small, throughout the United States and Canada. Intended as a buying guide and cataloging aid, this edition grades most of its titles from the pre-school to the ninth-grade levels. Books especially recommended by the votes of consultants are starred and those most highly recommended are double-starred.

To increase the usefulness of this edition with respect to the material included—and in regard to the ease and speed with which the material can be found—a major revision has been made in the arrangement. Part I now consists of a *Classified Catalog* giving for each book: publisher, price, subject headings, analytics made, and annotations. Here the compilers follow the abridged (7th) edition of the *Dewey Decimal Classification* and the seventh edition of *Sears List of Subject Headings*. Part II is an *Author, Title, Subject, and Analytical Index* in dictionary form. It contains entries for authors, titles, illustrators, series, and subjects for all books entered fully. In addition, there are analytical entries for stories and plays included in listed books, as well as subject entries for parts of books not brought out by general subject headings. Parts III and IV consist of a *List by Grades*, and a *Directory of Publishers*.

For the library requiring a larger number of books than is provided in the regular list, the *Catalog* offers a selection of additional or "noted" titles. These

are grouped in smaller type at the end of the classes to which they belong. As another new feature in the ninth edition, *Fairy Tales and Folklore* are analyzed and entered in the index under their individual titles with reference to the volume or volumes in which they appear.

The ninth edition of the *Children's Catalog* will be kept up-to-date by annual supplements. Paper-bound, these supplements will conform in arrangement and make-up with the ninth edition and will be cumulated for three years through 1959 with an annual supplement for 1960.

MOCK, RUTH. *Principles of Art Teaching*. New York 16: Philosophical Library, Inc., 15 East 40th St. 1955. 96 pp. Art teaching is related to the development of personality and to those resources of creativeness and appreciation which are likely to add to the maturity and happiness of any individual. Art teaching is, therefore, fundamentally creative, and demands creative efforts on the part of the teacher.

But how can the ordinary, non-specialist teacher, bewildered by conflicting theories and practical difficulties, make the best use of the time and materials available? In this book every such teacher will find the answer to that question, and will gain a new and deeper understanding of the task of art teaching. The author presents a sensible approach, by which the pupil is taught to see ordinary and extraordinary things for himself and with enjoyment, so that the whole of life is revealed as an absorbing visual adventure. Every aspect of art teaching is explored, with the child and his aptitudes and abilities always in mind.

O'NEILL, J. M. *The Catholic in Secular Education*. New York 3: Longmans, Green and Company. 1956. 192 pp. \$3.50. There are about 4,000,000 Catholic students in non-Catholic educational institutions in the United States today, and hundreds of thousands of Catholic teachers and administrators. And with a rapidly expanding population, more and more Catholics will have to be educated in the public schools and secular colleges; at no time in the foreseeable future will there be enough parochial schools and Catholic colleges for them to attend. The author explores the situation and gives information on the conditions, atmosphere, dangers, handicaps, and opportunities the Catholic student will face in secular education. He outlines for parents, pastors, and advisers of Catholic youth a program which the Catholic, as student or teacher, can follow to spread understanding about his faith, in answer to sincere questions that may be asked him about the Church and its teaching. The author discusses religion in education, "released time," the separation of Church and State, religious liberty, and the future of education in this country—not only for the Catholic but for every citizen. His book has something to say to non-Catholics interested in education as well as Catholics.

SCHORLING, RALEIGH, and H. T. BATCHELDER. *Student Teaching in Secondary Schools*. New York 36: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc. 1956. 416 pp. \$5. This basic reference book will help student teachers to integrate philosophy, educational psychology, the curriculum, methods, and needs of public education into a single pattern of knowledge that can be used in planning and guiding the educational experiences of youth in secondary schools. Comprehensive in scope, yet compact, the book deals with important concepts and principles related to the induction of students into responsible teaching, learning to understand pupils, guidance, classroom management, discipline, planning, methods, extra class duties, the use of audio-visual materials, teaching the slow-learning pupil, appraisal, and professional growth and advancement.

It is written directly to the student teacher in an attempt to help him broaden his concept of student teaching to include all that a teacher does in the classroom, in the total school, and in the community.

This third edition reflects the broader concept of student teaching which has developed in the last few years: emphasis is now toward giving the student teacher more extensive experiences in learning to do the important things teachers must do in the classroom. The chapter on planning is strengthened by the inclusion of more material relating to the purposes of education, resource units, and pupil participation in planning. The discussions of methods are completely reorganized, and several sections have been re-written to include important pedagogical concepts within the context of the present-day classroom situation. Illustrative materials, lists of suggested readings, questions for discussion, and suggested laboratory experiences have been extensively revised.

SMITH, L. F., and LAURENCE LIPSETT. *The Technical Institute*. New York 36: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc. 1956. 331 pp. \$5. This book is devoted entirely to the technical institute. It is a definitive and timely work, important to technical institute educators, guidance counselors, engineers, deans of engineering colleges, librarians, and directors of technical and industrial training. Although technical institutes have existed in the United States for more than 100 years, most of the information about them has been scattered. The authors have compiled up-to-date figures on enrollments and curriculums. Footnotes provide references for those interested in locating additional detailed information on various aspects of the field.

This volume brings together vital facts about technical institute education, and also outlines techniques for planning, initiating, administering, and evaluating technical institute programs. Its objectives are threefold: (1) to serve as a definitive work outlining the purpose, present status, and possibilities of technical institute education; (2) to describe techniques which may be utilized to determine the need for this type of education, to organize curriculums, to recruit staff and students, and to administer a technical institute program in all its aspects; (3) to provide guidance counselors and prospective students with a source of information about the location and nature of the various types of technical institute curriculums.

STINNETT, T. M. *The Teacher and Professional Organizations*, third edition. Washington 6, D. C.: National Education Association of the United States. National Commission on Teacher Education and Professional Standards. 1956. 176 pp. \$1.50. This book has been prepared for use in the professional orientation phases of college and university preservice teacher-education programs. The preparation of the volume was undertaken under the joint sponsorship of the National Association of Secretaries of State Teachers Associations and the National Commission on Teacher Education and Professional Standards.

The original purpose of the project was to develop teaching outlines or syllabuses for the use of instructors. However, the paucity of textual material available to students influenced the decision to include such material in this volume. There is, of course, a wide variety of reading materials dealing with areas covered by the units, but much of it exists only in publications of local, state, and national professional organizations and is not generally found in college libraries. The units contained in this publication may be used by colleges in several ways: (a) as one course; (b) as discrete units in an existing course;

(c) sequentially as one bloc in an existing course; or (d) as separate units in several courses.

The book, from the inception of the idea of its preparation, has been planned for use in preservice teacher education classes. This third edition continues to reflect that basic purpose. However, it was found after the first printing that the book was widely used by state and local education associations in leadership training, conferences, and by groups of experienced teachers taking inservice courses. Therefore, some additional materials have been included in the third edition to serve these purposes.

**WARTERS, JANE.** *High School Personnel Work Today.* Second edition. New York 36: McGraw-Hill Book Company. 1956. 368 pp. \$4.75. The author brings together in a single volume the important concepts of student personnel work and co-ordinates these concepts to help school workers handle adequately the pressing problems of student guidance today. The book covers the conditions which create a need for school programs in student personnel work; the historical background of the work; the important principles from sociology, psychology, and other related areas; the basic principles and techniques of student personnel work; the best practices; the current trends; and the needs for improvement.

Both eclectic in approach and comprehensive in content, the book is based on a careful study of the literature in the field, with special attention to reports on scientific research studies. More space than usual is devoted to personality dynamics and concepts of adjustment. Specific information is presented regarding the functions of the student personnel worker and how these functions may be fulfilled.

#### Books for Pupil-Teacher Use

**ALLEN, M. P.** *Blow, Bugles, Blow.* New York 8: Longmans, Green and Company. 1956. 217 pp. \$3. Serving under General Sheridan, Rick O'Shay enjoyed the sound of the bugles and the drilling with the horses. It all seems wonderful to the half-starved, ill-cared-for boy from the mean farm. Rick even has a horse. General Sheridan, his wonderful horse Rienzi, and the cavalry that Sheridan gathered from scattered units and made into a splendid striking force, gallop through these pages. Big battles, important tactical maneuvers of the Civil War are seen through the eyes of the boy. Here is the heavy futility of the Battle of the Wilderness, the attempt to think faster than Marse Robert, the pathos of the destruction of the lovely Shenandoah Valley, and on to that last, desperate race with Lee's forces, won by the north, but leaving Rick, and all the other veterans, with a respect and a regard for those they fought.

**ASHTON, HELEN.** *The Half-Crown House.* New York 16: Dodd, Mead and Company. 1956. 253 pp. \$3.50 This is a story about a house, an old (and yet ever renewed) English country manor house, and of the splendors it has seen, the births and deaths, the hard times and the good. But mostly it is the story of the people who have lived there and the mark that each has left. One would build a pavilion; another would pawn all but one precious piece of silver service. One brought tapestries from Belgium, another porcelains from China or brasses from India. A Queen slept here during one glorious week of pageantry.

And so the past lives in this house. But it is very much the present which concerns this book. The Hornbeam family, for all their colorful history, is hard

up, and the only way they can keep the old mansion house going is to open it on summer Sundays to tourists who, for the admission fee of half a crown, wander about and examine the treasures, and in so doing relive that past almost at first-hand. And the reader relives it with them.

BAILEY, BERNADINE. *Carol Carson: Books Across the Border*. New York 16: Dodd, Mead and Company. 1956. 246 pp. \$2.75. When Carol Carson, with a brand-new degree in library science, leaves her home in Illinois and flies to her big adventure south of the border she is well prepared basically for her new job as assistant to the children's librarian in the American Library of Mexico City. For years she has been taking specialized library training and studying Spanish in anticipation of receiving an appointment like this. Now she hopes she will be equal to the challenge. As for the personal problems that soon form a part of that challenge, Carol finds she must work these out for herself—and they are far from simple, in a land so similar, yet so different. In addition, Carol must never forget that she is serving the United States as an unofficial ambassador of good will to a neighboring country.

Life becomes especially complicated when she must take complete charge of the children's room, and again when she must cope with suspicious characters who frequent the library. Her superior, Betty Linder, laughs at her "imaginings," but Carol holds her ground. Loyalty to her devoted American friend Alex, back in the States, is also put to a severe test when the Mexican employees of the American Embassy are attracted by her blonde good looks. Carol learns to understand and like the land, its people and its customs. She is especially delighted to be able to share in bringing books across the border to the eager children of Mexico. The way in which she meets her worth-while challenge will endear her to young American readers.

BARROWS, M. W. *Good English Through Practice*. New York 17: Henry Holt and Company. 1956. 319 pp. \$2.76. This book has been prepared to help junior high-school students to learn to speak and write standard English. It provides oral and written practice through language exercises which are fun to do—serious, purposeful fun. Some of the guiding principles that were uppermost in the author's mind when she wrote the book were: (1) correction of sub-standard speech and writing habits must be based on clear, definite, highly focalized teaching, reteaching, and review; (2) the emphasis in a usage program should be upon oral and written practice in meaningful situations—good English habits cannot be taught in a vacuum; (3) practice materials should cover a wide variety of usage problems to meet individual and class differences in all sections of the country.

BELDEN, SHIRLEY. *Star Dust*. New York 3: Longmans, Green and Company. 1956. 214 pp. \$2.75. Jan's deep awareness of her problems makes her every girl starting her first year at college. In her they may see mirrored their half-formed aspirations, their tentative trials. Yet Jan had special gifts. She did not know what they were at first, nor later what to do with them. Find a husband, said many; find security, said others. You'll find your way, said those who loved her truly. Her New England qualities made her hold back until she could feel sure.

BERRILL, JACQUELYN. *Albert Schweitzer, Man of Mercy*. New York 16: Dodd, Mead and Company. 1956. 200 pp. \$3. The life of Albert Schweitzer has been so full and vital and so rich in human interest and helpfulness that it has a strong appeal for all ages. The author has written about the man who received the Nobel Peace Prize in 1952. She appreciatively presents the

many-sided story of his boyhood in Alsace, his struggles and difficult experiences as a student, his early career as a musician and scholar, and his dramatic turning to medicine and Africa when at the height of his fame. She describes vividly Albert Schweitzer's great service in building and maintaining a jungle hospital on the banks of a river deep in Africa, and all the dangerous adventures and amusing mishaps that came his way.

**BILLINGS, HENRY.** *Bridges*. New York 17: Viking Press. 1956. 159 pp. (6" x 9 1/4"). \$3.50. From a continent without bridges, America changed into a land whose rivers were crossed with masterpieces of timber construction; the famous covered bridges of Vermont, which are so highly esteemed by antiquarians, are visible examples of the kind of bridge built early in this country. From the natural materials of wood and stone, bridge builders progressed to the use of iron, until today America has been transformed once more by the beautiful sweeping structures of steel, such as the George Washington Bridge, which leaps in giant steps across the lordly Hudson, and the San-Francisco-Oakland Bay Bridge, which has a total length of more than eight miles. Mr. Billings looks to the future, describing bridges now under construction and those still in the dream stage. The proposed Messina Straits Bridge is an example of one such vision. Springing from the toe of the boot of Italy to the island of Sicily, it will have to endure not only the gales that sweep this part of the Mediterranean but also earthquakes.

**BOTHWELL, JEAN.** *Search for a Golden Bird*. New York 17: Harcourt, Brace and Company. 1956. 172 pp. \$2.95. When Jivan came to live with his grandfather, who was Prime Minister of Jaipur, there were many things he did not understand. Why, for instance, was he never allowed to ride out unattended on Raj-raj, his great black horse that he loved dearly? What was the mystery surrounding the disappearance of Dhuleep, his cousin, a few months before? What was the secret of the golden bird with the ruby eyes that his grandfather cherished? And why did Grandfather insist he go off in the fall to the Chiefs' School when he had only so recently come to live with him? Jivan was troubled, but he realized that older and wiser people than he were also facing serious problems. India was about to achieve its independence from the British Empire, and there were many decisions to be reached.

Lured away by a mysterious note, Jivan left the safety of his grandfather's house and traveled to Delhi in search of his missing cousin. There, living as an errand boy in the bazaars of the old city, Jivan slowly began to piece together bits of information. Finally, though he endangered his own life in so doing, he was able to untangle the threads of mystery that had bound him for so long.

**BRINKLEY, WILLIAM.** *Don't Go Near the Water*. New York 22: Random House, Inc. 1956. 373 pp. \$3.95. The story concerns a unit of land-locked mariners for whom the immortal naval watchword *Don't Give up the Ship* became *Don't Go Near the Water*. They were public relations officers and most of them, like their leader, Lieutenant Commander Clinton T. Nash (formerly in charge of a Midwest branch of a brokerage house), were commissioned "without the corrupting effect of any intervening naval training." By 1945 when the time our story begins, they had bravely faced the wartime adversities and shortages existing on the remote island of Tulura and had converted it into a kind of Radio City of the Pacific.

**BROOKS, E. M.** *The Growth of a Nation*. New York 10: E. P. Dutton. 1956. 320 pp. (7 1/2" x 10 1/2"). \$5.95. This book is intended to provide some answers to many questions raised by foreign people and Americans about the

social and economic development of the United States of America. It is a straightforward, easily understood, and entertaining presentation of a country and its peoples as they built a united nation from a primitive wilderness.

More than three hundred pictures and nearly fifty thousand words of text highlight significant events and personalities during this growth of America from a cluster of provincial, agricultural colonies to a modern, industrialized nation. Unusual and striking pictures representing every section of the country are synchronized with crisp, factual narrative.

BROWN, SLATER. *Ethan Allen and the Green Mountain Boys*. New York 22: Random House. 1956. 184 pp. \$1.50. "By whose authority have you and your mob entered His Majesty's fort?" It was May, 1775, and the question was addressed to Ethan Allen by the British commandant at Ticonderoga. Ethan's instant reply has passed into history. It is an answer that rings like the Liberty Bell itself—triumphant and vibrating. "In the name of the Great Jehovah and the Continental Congress!"

This great American is perhaps best known as the leader of the Green Mountain Boys who captured Fort Ticonderoga. But his whole life was spent battling for justice and independence. As a young man, he had championed the cause of his fellow townsmen when the governor of New York tried to impose on them the ancient landowning system of feudalism under which farmers could not own the land on which they lived. Ethan and his boys drove the Yonkers out of the Grants (which became the state of Vermont).

After Ticonderoga, Ethan was given the dangerous job of recruiting soldiers among the French settlers in Canada. Captured in Montreal, he was imprisoned on British ships, and two and a half years passed before he was back among his green hills and the people he loved. Ethan Allen is Vermont's special hero, but he is no less a hero to every other state in the Union for the high principles in which he believed and for which he fought.

BRYHER, W. E. *Beowulf*. New York 14: Pantheon Books, Inc. 1956. 201 pp. \$2.75. To the many admirers of the author's historical novels, this book will come as a delightful surprise. This gifted Englishwoman describes here an historical scene of which she herself has been the witness: the London Blitz. True to her customary method, she does not focus events on the great and the mighty, but on ordinary persons. A fussy spinster is to her the embodiment of national courage, and a plaster bulldog—Beowulf—symbolizes the stamina of the people.

The unheroic setting of her tale is a teashop-boarding house, appropriately called "The Warming Pan"—the pride and joy of Selina, whose aim in life was to run just such a shop as a comfortable haven for the single and lonely. After an auspicious start, the war catches up with her, her business dwindles, rationing interferes with her cakes, and the nights are sleepless with air-raid alerts. Valiantly and selflessly, Selina struggles to maintain "The Warming Pan" against all odds.

BUCHANAN, LAMONT. *Ballot for Americans*. New York 10: E. P. Dutton and Company. 1956. 192 pp. (7" x 10 1/2"). \$4.95. Covering the high-spots of forty-two Presidential and eighty-four Congressional elections, *Ballot for Americans* reveals in panorama the broad canvas of the American political scene—one half Main Street and one half Pennsylvania Avenue. Here, told in text and pictures, is the story of democracy in action—the elections and the major political figures, the men, the issues, and the headlines of each important campaign. Painting and photographs, party broadsides and posters, cartoons

and song sheets reveal clearly the humor, the urgency, and pleading of each hour.

CATTON, BRUCE. *A Stillness at Appomattox*. Garden City: Doubleday and Company. 1956. 448 pp. \$5. This is the story of the last desperate, heart-breaking, cruel year of the Civil War. In the winter of 1864, the Army of the Potomac stood at the crossroads. The old army, fired with the spirit of men who had joined out of love of country and who had long since become disillusioned, was gone. The new army, made up of mercenaries, bounty-jumpers, and a hard core of seasoned and embittered veterans, had lost sight of its original goal of radiant victory and had become a ruthless machine of war. Its leader was General Ulysses S. Grant, a seedy little man who instilled no enthusiasm in his followers and little respect in his enemies.

Opposing Grant and the Army of the Potomac was Robert E. Lee, the last great knight of battle. He was a god to his men and scourge to his antagonists. The stage was set. Somehow everyone knew that from now on there would be little glory in victory, little pity in defeat. With unmatched brilliance the author takes the reader through the battles of the Wilderness, the Bloody Angle, Cold Harbor, the Crater, and on through the horrible months to the truce at Appomattox. He makes Grant, Meade, Sheridan, and McClellan come alive in all their failings and triumphs and humanness. This is the third and final volume of his saga of the Army of the Potomac and follows the distinguished *Mr. Lincoln's Army* and *Glory Road*.

CHASE, RICHARD, compiler. *American Folk Tales and Songs*. New York 22: New American Library of World Literature, Inc. 1956. 256 pp. 50c. This is a Signet Key Book composed of lively, old-time English-American folklore. It contains tales, songs, ballads, hymns, games, country dances, sayings, jokes, and folk customs.

CHASTAIN, M. L. *Emmy Keeps a Promise*. New York 17: Harcourt, Brace and Company. 1956. 176 pp. \$2.75. According to Aunt Hannah, Arabel should be thinking of getting married and not traipsing off to New York City to teach at Miss Fenwick's School for Young Ladies. But then, it was eleven-year-old Emmy who had the Thatcher good sense and not her older sister, who had instead beauty and pride from the Pruitt side of the family. As they left for the city, Emmy promised Aunt Hannah that she would do all in her power to find a young man for Arabel.

New York in the 1850's was an exciting and busy place, full of wonderful sights and sounds and smells. But no eligible young men appeared to help Emmy with her promise until Andrew Spenlow returned home. Young Captain Andy of the clipper ship *Dauntless* was the adored cousin of Emmy's new friend Lissa. Both of the girls thought Arabel and Andy would make a perfect pair, and they concocted numerous schemes to encourage the romance. However, a certain Miss Clarendon Jeffers also had her eye on the handsome captain—and a few schemes of her own! The suspense and humor in Emmy's valiant attempt to keep her promise will thoroughly delight girls of today, as will the enticing details of shops and streets, parties and schools in New York's earlier days. This book will be a special treat to those who met Emmy's energetic friend Lissa in her own story, *Dark Treasure*.

CHUTE, MARCHETTE. *Stories from Shakespeare*. Cleveland 2: World Publishing Company. 1956. 352 pp. \$3.75. This first retelling of all the plays of William Shakespeare from the First Folio—all thirty-six of the comedies, tragedies, and histories—is written in fresh, twentieth-century language that

will enchant any reader. The author's style and scholarship blend in a book of stories that recaptures the vitality of the Elizabethan age.

"I have tried," says the author in her Introduction, "to make things easier for the people who encounter the plays for the first time, so that they can step lightly over the threshold without stumbling." And in this book she unravels the complexities of characterization and plot structure that often make of Shakespeare a closed door rather than an open curtain to a world of wonder. Here, retold for the reader of any age who wants a preliminary acquaintance with the plots and characters of Shakespeare's plays, is the most precious treasure of stories in the English language. Shakespeare told every kind of story—comedy, tragedy, history, melodrama, adventure, love story, fairy tale—and each of them so well that they have become immortal. In the world of storytelling, his is the greatest name. This book is in no sense meant as a substitute for reading the plays but is rather a key to enjoying the magnificently rich world that lies just past that magic threshold.

**CLEARY, BEVERLY.** *Fifteen.* New York 16: William Morrow and Company. 1956. 255 pp. \$2.75. Jane Purdy is fifteen and a sophomore in high school. No one has ever asked her for a date except George, an unromantic boy who is an inch shorter than she is and talks of nothing but his rock collection. Then she meets Stan: tall, good-looking, resourceful, and sixteen years old—all she ever dreamed of. The circumstances are trying. Jane is baby-sitting with Sandra Norton, the toughest assignment in town. Stan appears just in time to prevent Sandra, by a skillful use of pig Latin, from emptying a bottle of ink on the Norton's blond living-room carpet. How Jane emerges from the agonizing awkwardness of adolescence is the theme of the book.

**CLEMENT, MARGUERITE.** *In France.* New York 17: Viking Press. 1956. 151 pp. \$3. This is a hospitable book, inviting the reader into enjoyment and understanding of France—the romance of her history; the diversity and interest of her villages, cities, and countryside; the variety of her people; her arts, crafts, customs, and traditions; her great institutions and her notable men and women.

**COLEMAN, H. T. W.** *Banners in the Wilderness: Early Years of Washington and Jefferson College.* Pittsburgh 13: University of Pittsburgh Press. 1956. 303 pp. \$4. The simultaneous development of education and the spread of civilization in southwestern Pennsylvania form the editorial content of this book. A rich heritage of tradition and a wealth of historical fact are combined in the book, the story of the origin and development of one of America's finer liberal arts colleges in Washington, Pennsylvania.

Within twelve years after the first recorded arrival of the white man in Catfish, today affectionately known as "Little Washington," on the banks of Chartiers Creek, three earnest Presbyterian ministers established their first log cabin schools. They were John McMillan, Thaddeus Dod, and Joseph Smith. The book is the story of the college from the time of the log cabin schools to the union of Washington College and Jefferson College, symbolically timed within a few months after the end of the Civil War, which preserved national union. It is the story of education carried ahead like a banner through the wilderness by the pioneers as they moved ever westward in the eighteenth and nineteenth century.

The 55 colotype illustrations feature photographs of old buildings, founders of both colleges, students, professors, presidents, pages from old minutes of the colleges, and of the old literary societies. The appendix includes charters of the

two academies, Canonsburg and Washington; the colleges, Washington and Jefferson; and lists of trustees and presidents of the two colleges.

COX, W. R. *Five Were Chosen*. New York 16: Dodd, Mead and Company. 1956. 182 pp. \$2.75. When the new young assistant coach arrived at the small college where he had reluctantly agreed to work while recuperating from an injury he had suffered during a "big time" basketball game in New York City, things seemed mighty low. Trim Stowe had looked forward to becoming a much-cheered pro basketball star, so the comedown was terrific, especially when he found the pitiful choice he had in players for the top flight winning team of the college "gentleman-bountiful"—and policy dictator—expected him to produce. How Trim gathered together the most miscellaneous, unpromising, character-clashing quintette and molded them into a smooth-functioning, congenial set of players makes for wonderful reading.

CRAVEN, THOMAS. *The Rainbow Book of Art*. Cleveland 2: World Publishing Company. 1956. 256 pp. (8" x 11"). \$4.95. In the pages of this beautiful book, with its almost 400 pictures—in color and in black-and-white—is the history of the art of the world. It starts with primitive man drawing on the walls of his caves pictures of the animals he hunted, and ranges through the arts of painting and sculpture in Egypt and Greece and Rome. And it tells of the great artists of all countries who followed these men of old—and of the artists of yesterday and today.

The author speaks with humor, charm, and enthusiasm, as well as with the authority that a lifetime of study of these artists and their works gives to his words. This book has been prepared especially as an introduction, not only to knowledge about our art heritage, but to the lifelong interest and entertainment it offers. For art lovers of any age who cannot visit the famous collections, it is a museum tour in itself, guided by a man who brings a full appreciation of the artists and their works to his audience; for those who hope some day to visit the great collections of the world, this is a wonderful preparation. For any reader, it is a book to be treasured and read and enjoyed many times over.

DALZELL, J. R. et. al. *Building Trades Blueprint Reading, Part 1*, Third edition. Chicago 37: American Technical Society. 1956. 128 pp. plus several blueprints. \$2.75. In the work of revising this text, the emphasis was on improvement of existing material, resulting in a book which reflects modern building design and which simplifies the tasks of the instructor and the learner. A number of devices have been used to improve the book. The new edition has been reorganized, with the division of material into educational units, and no mathematics is introduced until it is needed. Interpretation has been emphasized throughout the book. The book is divided into the following seven chapters: Working Drawings, Elevation Views, Dimensioning and Sealing, Structural Details, Survey and Plot Plans, and Regional Variations. Included also are nine progress tests, a final examination, and an appendix.

DAUGHERTY, B. R. *A School of the Old Days*. New York 1: Vantage Press. 1956. 62 pp. \$2. Anyone who longs to put aside, for a while, the cares and complications of adulthood, and spend a little time reliving the days of his youth will find a good deal of it brought back to vivid life in this description of schooldays in the 1880's. The scene is a rural district in Iowa, but it could be any farming area from Maine to California. For no matter what place, the things children did, the games they played, the schoolroom interests that

engrossed them, and their attitude toward the life about them were very much the same everywhere in the country districts of America.

DAVIES, P. A. *The Meaning of the Dead Sea Scrolls*. New York 22: New American Library. 1956. 144 pp. 35c. This is the astounding story of the recent discovery of the ancient religious documents of world-shaking importance in a cave near the Dead Sea—with a scholarly interpretation of their relationship to the Holy Scripture and the origin of Christianity.

DENISON, CAROL. *Passwords to People*. New York 16: Dodd, Mead and Company. 1956. 135 pp. \$3.25. This is a book about words—their origins, their uses, and their vital importance in the world today. The author's experience in working with various U. S. government information programs in Europe first roused her interest in this subject. She conceived the idea of simplifying its complexities by using a picture treatment. So this is a book largely of informal, amusing drawings, with entertaining captions and fascinating imagery. All of these draw the younger reader irresistibly along until he finds himself understanding and actually enjoying the very important simple basic principles of semantics.

DORIS, LILLIAN, and B. M. MILLER. *Complete Secretary's Handbook*. Englewood Cliffs: New Jersey. Prentice-Hall, Inc. 1956. 706 pp. \$3.70. Two authors, former secretaries to outstanding business and professional men, plus an experienced panel of ten highly successful private secretaries, among the best paid in their profession, offer the secrets of their success. In this one handy volume, the authors not only explain but also show how to do the jobs on which success as a secretary depends. Both a personal and a business guide, its eight sections show how to write distinctive letters, how to write correctly and without errors, how to carry out properly personal duties for the employer, how to help him keep track of his financial affairs, how to handle all the special problems that fall to the best-paid secretaries, office manners, and reference facts. There's a wealth of expert guidance to develop good judgment and self-reliance—even poise and confidence. The book is compact, concise—yet fully comprehensive. The ten top-paid secretaries carefully guided the authors in just what the book should contain. And to assure the absolute authenticity of their material, the authors called upon other prominent and successful men and women to contribute ideas and check the validity of their statements.

DOUGLAS, J. S. *Caves of Mystery*. New York 16: Dodd, Mead, and Company. 1956. 287 pp. \$3. The author, a "cave crawler" himself, conveys vividly the feeling of awe of the spelunkers who first explored Mammoth, Carlsbad, Lehman, Altamira, Lascaux, Padirac, and other caverns when they were still "wild" caves. Today millions visit these enchanted "underground palaces," to view their vast galleries, hauntingly beautiful formations or cave art. The author also gives thrilling accounts of recent attempts to reach the "deepest depth on earth" in the underground abysses of Italy and France—the most appalling descents ever undertaken in cave exploration.

DULL, C. E.; H. C. METCALFE; and W. O. WILLIAMS. *Physics Workbook*. New York 17: Henry Holt and Company. 1955. 720 pp. \$4.56. This book is organized in 11 major units including 35 chapters. Each chapter is divided into convenient teaching sub-sections. Some of the major features of the book include: basic concepts; formulas and abbreviations following standards of A.A.P.T.; all scientific terms in bold face type and defined in the discussion; teaching aids include short unit reviews, diagrams, and pictures, chapter summaries and projects; a comprehensive appendix with glossary; a

workbook with 52 experiments with page references to many current physic textbooks; 45 exercises covering all the major topics for use either as pre-testing reviews or a study assignments and an additional cumulative review exercise for each unit, two completely new series of alternate tests covering 30 major areas in physics; and a mathematics refresher chapter to help students solve problems included throughout the text.

This completely rewritten edition continues its leadership as the basic textbook for the standard high-school physics course. Perfected in details, with a high degree of interest appeal, it follows the time-tested plan of organization. It is sound in the careful development of basic principles and rich in applications. The newest scientific developments are presented with proportionate emphasis and in their proper places. The selectivity which the authors have exercised in this revision provides a well-balanced, complete text which is ideal in meeting both general education and college preparatory objectives.

DUNSING, DEE. *The Seminole Trail*. New York 3: Longmans, Green and Company. 1956. 211 pp. \$3. Rod, young scout and Indian interpreter with the Army during the Seminole War, finds footprints in the forest glades that should not be there. Following them he sees the Spaniard, Galda, meet the Indians and exchange firearms for a carved silver box. Jailed, thanks to the scout's quick action, Galda swears revenge and soon escapes. If it were not for Shakochee, his Seminole friend, all would have been up with Rod, for the Spaniard does capture him. The young, gallant Indian, though an enemy, and Rod continue to save each other's lives. During a military expedition deep into Indian country, the young scout finds a miniature of a pretty girl, and one day he searches out the original in St. Augustine. She is plucky Dolly James, and with her help Rod remains close on Galda's trail, almost capturing him and preventing the escape of the Indian chief. In the end, it is the Spaniard's own greed that betrays him.

ENGEMAN, JACK. *West Point: The Life of a Cadet*. New York 16: Lee and Shepard Company. 1956. 160 pp. (10% x 8%"). \$3.50. This is a completely new kind of book on the United States Military Academy—the first ever to tell, in pictures and text, what actually goes on in the life of a cadet from admission to graduation. Here are all the activities of West Point, cadets at study, work and play, in barracks and classrooms, on parade, on the athletic fields, at Camp Buckner. The photographs, taken especially for this book, with captions and descriptions, recreate with remarkable vividness the sights and sounds of the Academy in a way that will warm the hearts of West Point men. More than that, it provides for qualified youths (prospective candidates for admission to the Academy) a splendid true view of just what the life is like, what the training is, and how valuable a service career can be.

FINNEY, G. E. *Is This my love*. New York 3: Longmans, Green and Company. 1956. 234 pp. \$3. Courageously Beatrice Whitcliff and her best friend, Jennifer Abbot, join the maids to go to that strange wilderness Virginia. Beatrice cannot, will not marry the fussy, dusty widower, her only prospect at home, and her brother is out in the colony. A surprise awaits her. The hardships for parting and the voyage are as nothing to giving up this brother, her only relative, to her friend, even though she loves Jennifer too. Used to gentle living, Beatrice finds the more primitive ways of Virginia hard. She has, however, unselfishly to help and to do her duty. She joins those fighting a fire and is the most faithful nurse to those stricken with the dreaded fever. Promptly all the other maids have become brides, as the London company hoped, but

Beatrice continues to find Jamestown crude, after the cathedral close in which she grew up, the men without the little courtesies. The governor's wife, a true gentlewoman herself, may call the young planters God's noblemen, but Beatrice cannot choose among them. Which is for her—the gentle minister who needs her so desperately, the man who has already had an Indian wife, the polished one all Jamestown despises? Or shall she return to England? Charles with his strength, his exasperating way of being right, she will not even consider. Yet when she alone must face the threat of the savage night, her heart asks, Where is Charles? Can Charles be safe?

FREMANTLE, ANNE, editor. *The Papal Encyclicals in Their Historical Context*. New York 22: The New American Library of World Literature, Inc., 501 Madison Ave. 1956. 317 pp. 50c. This book summarizes the teachings of the Catholic Church as expressed by the Popes in their official letters. Ranging from the very beginning of the Catholic Church down to the present day, this significant collection covers the first epistle of St. Peter, the earliest letters from the succeeding Roman Bishops, and the voluminous directives of subsequent ages in which the Popes have interpreted moral law in regard to the whole span of life, including belief in God, the Catholic Church and its doctrines, birth, marriage, death, political, social, and economic events and theories.

FRITSCH, C. T. *The Qumran Community*. New York 11: The Macmillan Company. 1956. 159 pp. \$3.25. Khirbet Qumran has become one of the most interesting sites in Palestine because of the phenomenal manuscript discoveries made in the caves nearby. Since 1947, more than 400 manuscripts finds in this area have had tremendous impact in the world of journalism and in the ranks of Biblical scholars. They bring a new era of Biblical study, greatly increasing the historical understanding of our faith.

On the shore of the Dead Sea a monastic community flourished from about 100 B. C. to A. D. 68. The author's visits to its ruins have enabled him to give an up-to-date description for the student, minister, and layman. He gives the reader a clear picture of the history, life, and teachings of the Qumran sect, and shows its relation to the Essenes,—one of the most important sects in Judaism. The ideas of "community" penetrated the whole life of the Qumran sect and in many practical and spiritual matters is strikingly similar to the communal life which, according to the Book of Acts, was practiced in the early church.

Already, the unique Qumran manuscripts have proved to be invaluable for Old Testament and inter-testamental studies. But it is in the field of New Testament studies that they promise to be especially significant. The eight chapters here are devoted to the general history of Khirbet Qumran, the caves, manuscript discoveries, the Manual of Discipline, the Damascus sect, the Essenes, and the relationship between the community and the New Testament. A bibliography includes most of the articles and books on the Dead Sea Scrolls and related subjects that have appeared from 1953 to the summer of 1955.

FULLER, ROY. *Fantasy and Fugue*. New York 11: The Macmillan Company. 1956. 192 pp. \$2.75. Harry Sinton was a murderer. He knew it. There could be no doubt of it. His mind was filled with the fearful knowledge, his trembling hands were fouled by invisible blood, his very soul reeked of murder. And yet, though murder is the most vivid of all crimes, Harry Sinton could recall none of the details of the foul deed he was sure he had committed. His killing of a dipsomaniacal poet was blanketed in a fog of amnesia. Frantically, but with desperate cunning, he seeks to discover the facts surrounding the disastrous act in order to establish an appropriate alibi. His nerve-shredding

investigations take him—and the reader—on a feverish chase through the literary and Bohemian circles of London. With every stumbling, head-long step he takes, he comes nearer the dreadful truth that awaits him.

GAGER, W. A.; L. J. BOWMAN; C. N. SHUSTER; and F. W. KOKO-MOOR. *Functional Mathematics, Book 4, (Grade 12)*. New York 17: Charles Scribner's Sons. 1956. 592 pp. \$3.40. This book for grade 12 climaxes an integrated mathematics program for grades 7-12. It has been written to prepare students for college or for life if they do not go to college. A student who wishes to be a scientist or an engineer or to prepare for any other type of technical training, and who has successfully completed this course will be mathematically prepared to meet college entrance requirements for such fields of study.

Book 4 of this series gives advanced training in finding roots of higher equations and an introduction to statistics, analytical geometry, differential and integral calculus, and some differential equations. It gives little space to consumer-producer problems since these are covered in the previous books of the series. It does, though, present some advanced work in compound interest, annuities, buying life insurance, installments, depreciation, and similar problems that involve mathematical understandings. The titles of the chapters (13) in order are: Man's Marvelous Number System; Geometrical Proofs; Manipulations with Measurements; Sequences, Arithmetic and Binomial Series, Compound Interest; Geometric Series and Annuities; Sharing Economic Loss Through Life Insurance; From Exponents to the Slide Rule; Trigonometric Functions; Functional Relationships; Statistics; Applying Mathematics to Statistical Data; Easy Applications of Differential Calculus; and Easy Applications of Integral Calculus. Included also is an index and an appendix containing a table of measures, metric conversion table, important formulas and equations, powers and roots of numbers, four-place logarithms of numbers with proportional parts table, four-place trigonometric and logarithmic trigonometric functions, and a syllabus of plane and solid geometry.

GORMAN, MIKE. *Every Other Bed*. Cleveland 2: World Publishing Company. 1956. 319 pp. \$4. Every other hospital bed in the United States is occupied by a mental case. Mental illness costs this country two and a half billion dollars a year. This book is the shocking story of how we have let this happen in the richest country in the world—and how little we are doing to correct this situation. The title of this book is shocking enough. But when you consider the fact that our population is increasing rapidly, it is almost possible to envision a day—and not too far off either—when it could easily be said that two thirds of our hospital beds were occupied by mental cases. And this, the author says, could happen unless we act now. For it is a sad fact, as the author shows us, that much could be done now—for both today and for the future—if some of the promising drugs and treatments that are now available could be adequately developed and widely used.

While dealing extensively with the remarkable therapeutic results achieved by Chlorpromazine, Reserpine, and other new drugs, he points out that "they are a far cry from what American science might have achieved if it had devoted even a small amount of its resources and ingenuity over the past few decades to a research attack upon mental illness." The book is essentially a documented plea for a vast increase in expenditures for psychiatric research coupled with a lengthy analysis of scores of physiological mysteries underlying mental illness which scientific investigation must explore in the coming years.

GRANT, BRUCE. *Longhorn: A Story of the Chisholm Trail*. Cleveland 2: World Publishing Company. 1956. 219 pp. \$2.75. The Chisholm Trail! From deep in southern Texas to the roaring cow town of Dodge City, great herds of longhorns rumbled through Indian territory into Kansas. Sul Burnet, too young to join his brother Brick in the Texas Rangers, thrilled at the chance to share that trek, for he knew that the boy who faced the hardships of that cattle drive would come home a man.

Before the trail-branding begins, Sul meets *El Diablo*, the big red steer with a temperament that matched his name, and Juan, the young Mexican who had raised and trained him. Hoping to save *El Diablo* from his fate at the end of the trail, Sul gets Juan a job with the *remuda* and the three friends set out with the Lazy A outfit along the dusty trail to Kansas. Although the boys see the big animal take his place as lead steer and win by his courage the grudging admiration of the experienced cowhands, there is danger still to meet and overcome. Indians, rustlers, a clash with a buffalo herd that brings them Mister Imp, and Sul's growing awareness of treachery within the outfit are all part of this memorable ride.

GREENE, J. E., editor. *Four Biographies*. New York 10: Globe Book Company. 1956. 510 pp. \$3. It is the purpose of this book to give students an opportunity to develop a real understanding of the values of reading biography. For this reason four works in biography and autobiography of different types and from different periods in American life have been provided. These have been carefully chosen on the basis of readability, appeal to different interest, variety of subject matter, and value to young people. Although they lived in different times, the individuals who appear in the biographies of this volume had many problems that are similar to those faced by young people today. The problems that faced Elizabeth Blackwell and Michael Pupin in their efforts to achieve an education will be familiar to many youthful readers. Ben Franklin's efforts to improve himself and his experiences as a boy seeking to make a place in life will be recognized by many. Similarly the boyhood pranks, the ambitions for theatrical fame and the disappointments of Will Rogers will have a personal message for many reader. The editor believes that young people will benefit from their acquaintance with the four individuals who are portrayed in this book.

Since this volume is intended to serve as an introduction to the study of biography, the four works included are abridged to make them most appealing and most readable in length. However, each biography is of different length for full understanding of the personalities of the individual characters. The four biographies included are: The Autobiography of Benjamin Franklin; The First Woman Doctor, Elizabeth Blackwell; From Immigrant to Inventor by Michael Pupin, and the story of Will Rogers by Betty Rogers.

GRIGG, M. A. *A New Course of Plants and Animals, Book I*. New York 22: Cambridge University Press. 1956. 216 pp. \$1.50. This book is composed of seven chapters: The Aquarium; Small Animals Found in Fresh Water; Larger Animals Found in Fresh Water; Animal Life in the Garden; Animals of the Countryside; Flowers and Seeds; and The Structure of a Flowering Plant. Included also are a series of questions for each chapter, a suggested list of apparatus and materials, a section on helpful hints, a list of suggested courses, biology books for the school library, and an index to the text.

HANSEN, H. H. *Costumes and Styles*. New York 10: E. P. Dutton and Company. 1956. 166 pp. (7" x 9 1/2"). \$5.95. This book shows the clothes of the

different periods as they were worn. It is an art gallery of the fashion world, at once essential to the trade and fascinating to the style conscious. These hundreds of illustrations in full and accurate colour, plus the illuminating text, tell the complete story of the evolution of fashion. They clarify the similarities within a period and the marked differences between style eras, and, in many cases, show the reasons for these differences. This is a reference book for anyone needing accurate information on costume—whether it be in clothes, painting, advertising, the theatre, or any other creative field—from the simple garments of Egypt, through the magnificent draping of the Middle Ages, the baroque extremes of the 17th century, the Victorian distortions, the pinched waists on the *fin de siècle*, and the adolescent exaggerations of the Twenties, to our own casual functional customs. As age superceded age, it shows how minor details from one period have been used in others, and can be again.

The illustrations for the periods prior to the 18th century, when fashion pictures began to appear, have been adapted from contemporary works of art. They come from many sources—the grave paintings of Ancient Egypt, Greek vases, the illuminated scripts of the Middle Ages, early Italian and Flemish paintings, and masterpieces of the Renaissance. They are not literal reproductions, but composites, designed to emphasize drape, detail, and style. The list of colour illustrations gives the period or the artist when known, and the pictures themselves supply an almost endless source of variations in the dress of any period and the possibilities of present adaptation.

HARKINS, PHILIP. *Young Skin Diver*. New York 16: William Morrow and Company. 1956. 188 pp. \$2.75. Ned Palmer is a daring surfboard rider, capable of riding the biggest combers that come crashing in on the beaches of southern California. In spite of his expert handling of the surfboard, Ned becomes involved in a serious accident in which he and his best friend come close to drowning. They are saved by Mark Owen, a young marine biologist and skin diver who is studying and working at the Institution of Oceanography. Almost against his will, Ned becomes interested in Mark Owen's work and soon realizes how much more important it is than the thrill of riding even the biggest comber. Ned is not much of a student; but now, as his interest deepens, he finds himself studying, concentrating, and training as he never has before. At last the day comes when he is qualified to make his first dive—not a deep one, but enough for a brief look into a fascinating world. Then begins the real competition—Ned Palmer against the many dangers to be met by any scientific skin diver.

HOGAN, HOMER. *A Dictionary of American Synonyms*. New York 16: Philosophical Library. 1956. 398 pp. \$6. The purpose of this book is to provide journalists, teachers, and writers in general with a key to the language of the first atomic decade. The basic contents consist of definition entries for about 3,000 recent or widely current American words and expressions, and general category entries under which these terms are included as synonyms or related words. Drawn largely from contemporary publications, the definition entries include distinctly modern terms, additional meanings to old words, phrases in the news, popular idioms, clichés, slang, and a few coined ways of achieving new verbal effects.

HUEBENER, THEODORE, and C. H. VOSS. *There Is Israel*. New York 16: Philosophical Library. 1956. 175 pp. \$3.75. This book attempts to present a clear and colorful picture of the historical and cultural background of Palestine and of the Hebrews from the earliest times up to the present. The salient

facts are given of the history of the Jews, the development of Judaism, the origins of Christianity, the Saracen invasions, the Crusades, the Turkish rule, and the British Mandate. The story is told of the arduous struggle of Zionism and its leaders to secure a homeland for the Jews. The establishment of the State of Israel is described, as well as its amazing economic and cultural development, its difficulties and its major institutions. The serious problems confronting the new republic are discussed, especially its relation with its Arab neighbors.

HUTCHISON, BRUCE. *The Struggle for the Border*. New York 3: Longmans, Green and Company. 1956. 512 pp. \$6. The author has written this account of the struggle for the border between Canada and the United States in terms of the men who influenced its events. And what men they were, these Canadians and Americans who made the border! Champlain, Wolfe, Montcalm, Frontenac, Sir Guy Carleton, Benedict Arnold, Montgomery, and Benjamin Franklin in colonial times. In later years Brock, Tecumseh, William Henry Harrison, Daniel Webster, and Lord Ashburton. Then, running into our own day, Sir John MacDonald, Theodore Roosevelt, Mackenzie King, Franklin Roosevelt, and Louis St. Laurent. Great explorers—Fraser, Captain James Cook, Alexander MacKenzie, George Simpson, John McLoughlin, Lewis and Clark—and many other pioneers played their parts in the push towards the Pacific. These men and many others did their deeds, large and small, good and bad, in the struggle for the undefended boundary between two great peoples—the 49th parallel, which marks where Canada ends and the United States begins.

IVES, BURL. *Sea Songs of Sailing, Whaling, and Fishing*. New York 3: Ballantine Books, Inc., 101 Fifth Ave. 1956. 144 pp. 50c. Contains 68 songs with melody and guitar chords, including chanties from the movie, *Moby Dick*.

JACOBY, N. H. *Can Prosperity Be Sustained?* New York 17: Henry Holt and Company. 1956. 166 pp. \$2.35. This book discusses the future of our economy. The author deals with the large questions, briefly and simply. He presents points of view, poses issues, and offers useful perspectives on problems of sustained prosperity in the United States. The book is composed of fifteen chapters and an index. In these the author discusses our stake in sustained prosperity, keystones of American economic growth, our economic goal, the role of government, the role of the individual, federal machinery for managing the economy, tools for forecasting business conditions, extending the floor of personal security, building the nation's stock of public assets, regulating the supply of money, designing the tax system, stimulating business investment, maintaining vigorous competition, pillars of our foreign economic policy, the view ahead. The first seven chapters have to do with our past and present performance and the remaining one sets forth a program for the future.

JONES, E. S. *Improvement of Study Habits*. Buffalo: Foster and Stewart Pub. Corp. 1951. 127 pp. This book discusses ways and means for developing good study habits with special emphasis given to techniques of studying in college. Topics discussed in the eight chapters are: the right attitude, reading, creating an interest in reading, note-taking, improving one's memory, use of the library, physical conditions for study, the habit of concentration, reasoning in mathematics and science, mental hygiene for the student, preparing for and taking examinations, and aggressive mastery of assignments.

KAPP, PAUL. *A Cat Came Fiddling*. New York 17: Harcourt, Brace and Company. 1956. 80 pp. (8" x 10"). \$3. For fifty-seven delightful old

nonsense verses and nursery rhymes—some of them familiar like "Goosey Goosey Gander" and "One Misty Moisty Morning," some less well-known like "Robin, the Bobbin" and "Little King Pippin"—Paul Kapp has written enchanting new music. As Burl Ives says in his introduction, "His melodies have a direct line to the era of Hogarth and John Gay. I think he has written music that has achieved exactly what music for this material should; it sounds as though it had never been written, only sung . . . The simplicity and directness of his approach produced a result which delighted me. The author had his ear tuned, not to our adult time, but to the time of childhood."

Throughout the book, all the gay, quaint, foolish, or wise characters of the songs appear in many moods, caught at just the right moment by Irene Haas's gifted pen and made into pictures as unforgettable as the music. This is a song book to delight all ages. It will be used at home or at school, for parties, for individual pleasure—wherever old or young gather in festive mood to sing and make music.

KARR, DAVID. *Fight for Control*. New York 3: Ballantine Books. 1956. 188 pp. paperbound, 35c; hardbound, \$3. The author discusses how management and investors seek to win shareholders support. In it he describes some of the biggest campaigns waged in modern business—as for example A. P. Giannini's fight to control the Bank of America, Robert Young's management of the New York Central Railroad, and Serge Rubinstein's attempt to influence the affairs of Decca records. Here are some behind-the-scene actions.

KELLY, F. C. *The Wright Brothers*. New York 3: Ballantine Books. 1956. 220 pp. 35c. This is a biography of two Americans whose inventive genius has had profound effect upon the whole world. It is a story of adventure and daring—flight in perilously frail machines, and the breathtaking intellectual adventure of minds discovering through tireless research and sudden, brilliant hunches the solution to the "impossible" problem of flight.

KILZER, L. R.; H. H. STEPHENSON; and H. O. NORDBERG. *Allied Activities in the Secondary School*. New York 16: Harper and Brothers. 1956. 357 pp. \$4.50. The philosophy of this book is indicated by its title. When the curriculum is considered to be "all the activities of the learner under the direction and supervision of the school," allied activities become an important part of the school's offering. Secondary-school administrators, and students in training for secondary-school work, will find this text invaluable in evaluating and re-evaluating allied activities programs.

All types of activities are discussed: home room, assembly, clubs and secret societies, athletics, music and drama, journalism, social activities, and others. Historical and philosophical backgrounds of each are sketched. Problems of limiting or increasing pupil participation are considered. Financial aspects of school activities are discussed. The kinds of training provided by such activities are presented. Sixteen pages of photographs illustrate the work. Herbert Sorenson of the University of Kentucky, in reviewing the book, states: "It is interestingly written, comprehensive in its contents and rich in its philosophy and meanings. It tells you what allied activities are, how to administer them, and best of all, gives you the whys of allied activities. Here is a superior book for the student who is going to be a teacher, and for the teacher, principal and superintendent on the job. It brings together in one volume the best knowledge and experience in this field and the authors have been unusually successful in their interpretations and applications. A teacher, principal or superintendent equipped with the knowledge and understanding that can readily be acquired

from this book can avoid many serious difficulties in handling allied activities and be equipped to guide the students successfully."

LAW, F. H., compiler. *Great Adventures*. New York 10: Globe Book Company. 1956. \$2.40 This book is a compilation of 30 adventure stories grouped under five major heads: Adventures in Asia, on the sea, in Africa, in the Polar regions, in North America, and in South America.

LAWRENCE, MILDRED. *Indigo Magic*. New York 17: Harcourt, Brace and Company. 1956. 184 pp. \$2.95. Sketchbook in hand, young Susanna Fenton happily rode with her father through the wilderness of East Florida. It was the year 1767, and as Mr. Fenton collected botanical information on this new British colony, Susanna was to make drawings of all the strange and beautiful plants and birds that they saw. In exchange for this information, Jerrold Fenton had been granted land for an indigo plantation with an old Spanish house on it that would be their new home.

Their only close neighbors were bombastic Captain Bigelow and his family. The Captain had a large plantation and an experienced staff who could advise the Fentons on the tricky business of making the rich blue dye from the indigo seeds. But his daughter Claribel, who Susanna hoped might be a best friend, talked of nothing but clothes and the coming ball in St. Augustine. Bethany Lane, the Bigelow's bound girl, was far more fun. Even though she could slip over to the Fentons' only occasionally, Bethany seemed almost like a sister, and Susanna longed to help her buy her freedom.

LEEDER, J. A., and W. S. HAYNIE. *Music from Shore to Shore*. Morristown, New Jersey: Silver Burdett Company, 1956. 224 pp. Clothbound, \$2.92; paperbound, \$2.20. Here is a new book of songs that everyone can sing and enjoy, planned especially for general music classes in secondary schools. The book contains a variety of folk songs, songs for holidays, favorites from the operas and simply arranged choruses from the works of classic and modern composers. It is geared to the interests and abilities of pupils with a limited musical background. Through the active participation of all pupils, it stimulates interest in music as a vital part of our cultural heritage and as a means of enriching everyday living. A special feature is the inclusion of two dramatic choral sequences for assembly or radio performance. This book also contains descriptive notes for each song. These commentaries provide historical background, encourage music appreciation, and promote a grasp of music fundamentals. Appropriate recordings and films are recommended.

MANTINBAND, J. H. *Dictionary of Latin Literature*. New York 16: Philosophical Library. 1956. 313 pp. \$7.50. A complete volume dealing with all periods and aspects of Latin literature from the earliest classical times, through the Middle Ages, until the Renaissance. Approximately, 3,000 articles appear in this book, all under individual authors (e.g. Vergil, Cicero, Horace, Ovid, Lucretius, Boethius, Bede, St. Augustine, St. Thomas Aquinas, Erasmus); works (Aeneid, De Rerum Natura, City of God); types of literature (epic, tragedy, satire); and related topics (religion, education, mythology, and classical scholarship, etc.). Those interested in this aspect of the literary world will find this an invaluable reference work.

MARRIOTT, ALICE. *Sequoyah: Leader of the Cherokees*. New York 22: Random House. 1956. 180 pp. \$1.50. In this book, the author tells of the Indian boy who fought in the War of 1812 and there had his first chance to observe the ways of white men. The thing that fascinated him was their way of sending messages by means of queer signs and symbols on sheets of paper.

The boy was Sequoyah, who later became spokesman for the Cherokees and one of the most famous men in America. Today his statue stands in the United States Capitol. And he is honored by the giant trees that bear his name, the stately *sequoias* of California. If white men could do it for their language, why couldn't he do it for his? With bits of charcoal and sheets of bark, he set to work. For years Sequoyah continued his task and, finally, became the only man in the world to perfect, singlehanded, a system of writing and reading a language.

**MARSH, I. T., and EDWARD EHRE, editors.** *Best Sports Stories, 1956.* New York 10: E. P. Dutton and Company, Inc. 1956. 385 pp. \$3.75. Here it is!—the excitement and drama, the joy and heartbreak of the 1955 sports year recaptured in fifty-two of the year's best newspaper and magazine sports articles and thirty spectacular action photographs. Once again, in this, their twelfth volume of the series, the editors have maintained the high standard that has won them the respect and following of sports fans everywhere.

The three outstanding judges—John Chamberlain, Bob Considine and Quentin Reynolds—have selected the prize winning stories and photos from thousands of entries. Regular and important features of this well-known series are the classified listing of the great sports champions of the year and "Who's Who in Best Sports Stories," giving thumbnail sketches of all the writers and contributors. Here is the thrillpacked panorama of the colorful 1955 sports year, abounding with the finest work of ace reporters—a sports treasury no real fan will want to miss!

**MAW, MARGARET.** *Nikoline's Career.* New York 3: Oxford University Press. 1956. 188 pp. \$3. The heroine of Nikoline's Academy has her first job—teaching in a one-room school house in Utah. Though she is young and inexperienced, Nikoline discovers that enthusiasm for her work brings unexpected rewards. Her resourcefulness and courage help her overcome the many problems that face the only teacher in a pioneer Mormon community of the 1890's. Yet her personal problems are not resolved with such clarity. For the harder Nikoline works, the more she realizes the dilemma a successful career can cause. She, just as every young girl, is thrilled by the attention of young men, especially of Dick, a promising young lawyer, and Ray, one of her best friends at the academy. Soon she realizes that she must decide between her career or marriage—whether she should follow her ambitions or her heart.

**MC CASLIN, NELLIE.** *Tall Tales and Tall Men.* Philadelphia 2: Macrae Smith Company. 1956. 238 pp. \$3.50. For this collection of plays the author has drawn on her wide knowledge of American folklore to present some of the richest of our native tales in dramatic form. Here we have a sampling of the many kinds of legends which have grown up in this country: the tall tale, the turning of the trick, the story of the uncommon man, the supernatural tale, and, finally, the "how it came to be" legend of the Indians. The East, Middle West, North, South, Southwest, and Far West are all represented. These tales are lively and fresh, true to the special character of the regions where they grew up and to the vigorous spirit of America.

Like all countries, America has a wealth of legends and folklore, of tall tales about tall men. Our supply of national heroes and legends may be limited, compared with that of other lands, but it is far from meager. Many stories have grown around colorful personalities like Paul Bunyon, John Henry, and Davy Crockett. Others relate brief encounters between the witty and the slow, the

shrewd and the simple, the powerful and the weak. Americans have always loved to spin a yarn, and many of these rank with the world's best folktales.

MILLER, C. G. *Modern Journalism*. New York 17: Henry Holt and Company. 1955. 378 pp. \$2.68. Most teachers will probably agree that they promote journalism chiefly because of its contribution to a general education. One of the deep satisfactions about teaching this course is the opportunity to exercise an educational influence on the students who enroll in it. This opportunity has two important aspects: *first*, to teach significant facts, and *second*, to provide educational benefits for the school as a whole. This book is both a textbook and a guidebook. For the large high school which offers several courses in journalism, there is material for the introductory course and ample material for staff work. For the small school which has neither a journalism course nor a teacher specially trained in journalism, the book is a handy and complete guide for those students who put out the newspaper or annual as an extracurricular activity solely for the joy of doing this work.

Publishing the high-school newspaper, magazine, or yearbook is an example of a special educational activity. That is, it can be depended on to arouse the interest of the students and can become the means of developing numerous incidental learnings of the highest rank. Students can develop special techniques of practical value, an understanding of many important topics, and valuable traits of personality useful in later life.

As students participate in the journalism course, they certainly should have in mind the mastery of such goals as: (1) a command of clear and concise English; (2) the application of journalistic techniques; (3) a knowledge of current events; (4) a factual approach to the function of the press in a democracy; (5) an understanding of journalism as a possible vocation; (6) good judgment as to the quality of the publication; (7) an awareness of the need for tact and diplomacy in talking with people; and (8) an application of such fundamental traits as accuracy, fairness, co-operation, leadership, courtesy, and reliability.

The author has kept these goals in mind in writing this book and has provided the materials for carrying them out. The largest part of the book (Chapters 1-17) is designed especially for class work. Another part (Chapters 18-20) is for guidance in preparing high-school publications, and the last part (Chapters 21-22) contains rudimentary instruction pertaining to adult publications.

The author's classroom experience has indicated that students must not only be told how to do something; they must also be shown. The method used in this book follows that experience. First, a journalistic principle is discussed briefly. Then it is put into practice by using as many applications as possible. Students like short, clear instruction. As an aid to such instruction, the book contains many pictures and drawings which show how to apply the various principles. Long, detailed explanations and the over-use of examples have been scrupulously avoided.

There are abundant practice and exercise materials. A special feature of this book is the use of dramatized exercises for news stories—that is, exercises in which the reporter and the news source appear in nearly their natural state. From the script provided in the text, the reporter gets his news facts. From them he writes his story.

MOON, G. W., and J. H. MAC GOWAN. *Story of Our Land and People*. New York 17: Henry Holt and Company. 1955. 668 pp. \$4.16. In the prepara-

tion of the book for grades seven and eight, the authors strive to give students a background of information and a deep appreciation of their country, its achievements and its problems; to help young people read newspapers intelligently, to listen with understanding to newscasts on radio and television; to prepare them to vote—and vote intelligently; to encourage them to read and investigate further; to drive home the significant facts and events in our country's history; to make clear the relation of cause and event—why and when; to point up the importance of geography in the nation's development; to help students gain new skills—using maps, interpreting charts, taking notes; and to interpret for the student the meaning of history, showing how events and movements in the past have shaped our lives today. Two themes predominate in this book: (1) that America is a land of freedom, to which liberty loving men and women have come from the far corners of the earth; and (2) that America is a land of opportunity, built by the hard work and foresight of our ancestors: a land where everyone has the opportunity to develop in his own way to the limit of his abilities. The book is divided into 12 units, totaling 28 chapters. In addition to an index, an appendix includes the Declaration of Independence, the U. S. Constitution, suggestions concerning the use of maps and the pronunciation of words, a glossary, a list of our presidents with information as to residence when elected, term of office and party, and also a list of the state with date of admission, capital, population, and nickname. Some of the features of the book are: easy and interesting reading, biographical sketches and personal anecdotes, chronology stressed and visualized, emphasis on geography (66 text maps—47 in two colors and 12 full-page reference maps in four colors), chapter and unit summaries, inter-relationship of present to the past, and pronunciation aids.

MOON, T. J.; P. B. MANN; and J. H. OTTO. *Modern Biology*. New York 17: Henry Holt and Company. 1956. 767 pp. \$4.88. This complete revision is designed as a basic textbook for the standard course in high-school biology. Care has been given to the factors that support teaching and aid in learning biology as a challenging and richly rewarding experience in science. In view of the wide variations in emphasis and in student abilities, the book combines breadth with balance and unitary completeness with the simplest essentials for beginners. This general plan of presentation and the sequence within units provide adjustability that is easily administered to meet varying needs. It combines the best features of the type, systematic, and principles course. In the study of type organisms, the beginner has an opportunity to study a complete plant or animal and the inter-relation of all its organs and life activities. Such an approach emphasizes the unity of life. On the other hand, the systematic study of plant and animal groups shows the relationship of all living things, the development of life through various stages of complexity, and the wide variety of organisms which compose our living world. Finally, the study of principles is accomplished largely by the inductive approach. The parts relating to the structure, function, behavior, and adaptations of living things lead the student through generalization to an understanding of principles. Beginning with the natural interest in particular living things, the book applies the scientific method in expanding knowledge and developing understanding.

The organization follows a logical and sequential pattern. Unit I introduces biology as a science and explains and illustrates the research and technical methods as well as essential scientific attitudes. Other chapters of the first unit lead into the basic properties of living things, problems in maintaining life,

the cell as the structural unit of life, functions of the cell, and the basic chemical relations of plants and animals. Unit 2 relates the organism to its physical and biological environment, and illustrates the basis of scientific classification and the structural relationships of various plants and animals.

With this broad background of living things in general, the student is prepared to consider specific groups of organisms. Unit 3 presents the seed plants, thus starting the study of plant life with familiar examples. The less familiar flowerless plants follow the seed plants in Unit 4. The student has only a short step from the simplest plants to the simplest forms of animal life as he begins Unit 5. In the chapters of this unit and Unit 6 he surveys the animal kingdom from the less to the more complex and finishes the vertebrates before studying the human body.

Unit 8 includes a practical study of human biology. Therefore, with this knowledge of plants, animals, and man, the student is prepared for the more advanced units dealing with disease and heredity. Although conservation problems are continually discussed in appropriate places throughout the study of plants and animals, the total conservation problem is treated fully in Unit 10 as a climax to the study of biology.

The authors recognize the reading problems that exist for many high-school students. Hence they have kept the sentences and paragraphs short. Words having important scientific meaning are printed in boldface type and are pronounced phonetically, with the accented syllables in *italics*. Each of these is defined where it first appears in the text, and again in the Glossary at the end of the book.

Illustrations have been carefully chosen for learning value to supplement reading comprehension. These include both line drawings and photographs. Color has been used as an aid to learning by emphasizing detail in the line drawings. The quality and abundance of line drawings, charts, and tables of comparison cannot be overemphasized for their usefulness to high-school students.

Each chapter opens with a short introduction which directs the thinking of the student to the chapter content. A brief summary at the close of each chapter reviews the principles presented and leads into the next chapter or unit. Teaching and learning aids at the end of each chapter have been carefully differentiated to meet individual or group differences. They are arranged into two categories: *Questions for Review* are factual and recall questions which every student should be able to answer; the second group of questions, *Applying Facts and Principles*, consists of items which require some inductive thinking. *Biologically Speaking* is vocabulary drill to help students know the meaning and pronunciation of all essential terms. *Research on Your Own*, at the close of each unit, contains a list of suggested outside activities for individual and group projects. This is followed by *More About Biology*, a list of carefully selected books for supplementary reading in the topical area of the unit.

MURPHY, G. E.; H. R. MILLER, and T. J. QUINN. *Let's Read! Book 4*. New York 17: Henry Holt and Company. 1955. 640 pp. \$2.96. This is Book 4 in a 4-book series for grades 7-10 with average reading ability. The series is also built with the idea of providing reading material for those who are retarded in reading ability. The book, for example, has been prepared for students anywhere in grades 10 to 12 whose reading ability is at the level of grade 8 or 9 while Book 1, for example, is recommended by the authors for grade 7 with students who may range in reading ability down to the fourth or fifth

grade level. The selections in Book 4 were chosen because they were written about some interest or concern of great importance to young adults. The selections are divided into nine categories or units—understanding others, successful living, playing the game, the importance of the family, special friends, spotlight on you, an eye to the future, meeting challenges, and what's right. Each story contains suggestions for study, and each unit contains a section on "summing up" and a list of books for further reading. A *Teacher's Manual* is provided for each book of the series. Each is an elaboration of the general discussion of reading development, with specific suggestions for setting up a reading program and for motivating the interest of hesitant readers in both the units and the sections. Here, also, they will find complete answers for the exercises so that a student's progress may be easily and accurately checked. In addition there is a selected bibliography of helpful reference books for those teachers who would like to do further study in the teaching of reading.

MYGATT, E. D. *Prisoner in the Circle*. New York 3: Longmans, Green and Company. 1956. 210 pp. \$2.75. Ken, a Boy Scout recently elected to the Order of the Arrow, wants to know what the modern Indian is like and what he is doing. Losing his uncle's horse and saddle seems a bad start, but it gains him the sympathy of shy, proud Roy. Since Ken comes onto the reservation off the range and stays to share the luck of the Cheyennes, he can observe the mixture of fine work and deeply felt ceremonial, of idleness and poverty. His feeling for the Indians projects the scout into risky ventures and midnight excursions. Sympathetically, he grasps how many ordinary things are never seen there—and so are not known to his new friends. But in bringing Roy out of the reservation to find a job, Ken makes use of his sound common sense. Roy takes part in All-American Indian Days, so does unpredictable Herbert, and so does Ken's horse—without Ken's permission. Herbert has been responsible for so much, the scout senses that even Roy wonders about him and the frequent fires. When an awful conflagration rages in the small canyon, however, it is these three who face it together to rescue a downed pilot and solve the mystery.

NEELY, H. M. *The Stars by Clock and Fist*. New York 17: Viking Press. 1956. 192 pp. (7½" x 10¾"). \$4. Ever since the first star map was made thousands of years ago, people have been finding the stars and constellations by referring to these representations of the heavens, which, however, are difficult for the beginner in astronomy to use. Now, Henry M. Neely, after almost half a century's interest in this subject, and after a decade of experimentation and compilation, has invented and presented in this ingenious volume a revolutionary new method of star identification. For some years the author's invention has been tested and proven by the young people at the Children's Museum in Forth Worth, Texas; by classes in astronomy at the University of Toledo, Ohio; and by members of the Astronomy Round Table for beginners at the American Museum—Hayden Planetarium in New York City. At last, with the publication of his book, which promises to be the definitive work of its kind, pupils can easily identify for themselves the wonders of the night sky—stars, constellations, and planets.

NEWARK, MAXIM, Ph.D. *Dictionary of Spanish Literature*. New York 16: Philosophical Library. 1956. 360 pp. \$7.50. The primary aim of this book to to serve as a convenient reference work for American students of Spanish and Spanish American literature. The treatment is concise, factual, and objective, the endeavor being to present a maximum of data with a modicum of critical commentary, and to make the latter representative rather than

subjective. Within the given limits, the coverage includes the great anonymous masterpieces, the major and minor novelists, poets, dramatists, essayists and literary critics, both of Spain and of Spanish America. Also included are eminent Spanish literary scholars as well as outstanding Hispanists of other countries, but especially those of the United States. Wherever pertinent, the interrelationships of Spanish literature with that of other countries is treated in appropriate detail. The entire dictionary is thoroughly cross-referenced with respect to titles of representative works, famous literary characters, and pseudonyms of authors.

NORTON, ANDRE. *Stand to Horse*. New York 17: Harcourt, Brace and Company. 1956. 250 pp. \$3. To Ritchie Peters, a raw recruit in the First Dragoons, the winter of 1859 when he was first stationed at Santa Fe was a tough one. The Apaches attacked and raided in even the foulest weather, and the dragoons had no choice but to go after them, often to meet sudden death by violence, starvation, and freezing. Yet all the while, certain far-sighted Army officers and the invaluable scouts, known as Mountain Men, were making the most of every opportunity to explore and map new territory as yet unknown to white men—an important contribution to the development of our country. Ritchie slowly adjusted to this life of great hardships but also of deep loyalties and friendships, and eventually came completely under the spell of this strange and fascinating country. He had "drunk of these waters" and was "part of this land."

OTTO, J. H.; C. J. JULIAN, and J. E. TETHER. *Modern Health*. New York 17: Henry Holt and Company. 1955. 576 pp. \$4.12. This book presents reasons rather than rules as motivating devices in health education. It gives the student some medical understanding and scientific background in order to help him deal with his own health problems, and then shows him how to face those which may arise later on.

The authors have kept in mind four aims for teaching health: (1) to present enough anatomy for the student to understand the workings of the human body; (2) to show what can go wrong in the body; (3) to describe what can be done to prevent things from going wrong; and (4) to improve health and attitudes toward it. This book is suited to either a one-semester or a full-year course in health which may be offered at any level in the high school curriculum. Units have been purposely arranged so that they can be used as one course or integrated with other courses according to the health education plan or curriculum that may be in effect in any school, city system, or state.

As a guide in the section of material, a star marks certain parts of chapters, paragraphs in other chapters, and certain questions. The starred sections contain more difficult or optional material. They may be used or omitted at the discretion of the teacher. The style of writing is informal. Easy, monosyllabic words have been substituted wherever possible for difficult, polysyllabic words. Scientific terms are defined the first time they appear in the text. Each term is printed in boldface type, and is followed by a phonetic pronunciation with the accented syllable marked by *italic type*. In addition, a complete list of words and terms, with pronunciations and meanings, appears in the Glossary.

Teaching and learning aids at the end of each chapter are divided into four sections. *Questions for Discussion* are thought and diagnosis questions. *Words at Work* combine terms and meanings as a way of building a functional vocabulary of health terms. The *Quick Quiz* makes use of various types of testing procedures. The student should use this section in evaluating his specific

understanding of chapter content. *Projects for Enrichment* offer an opportunity for further investigation of health problems. They may be used for class projects, for group work, or as outside activities.

Supplementary reading materials are listed at the end of each unit. The health interest and needs of high-school students have been especially considered in preparing these bibliographies. The *Table of Infectious Diseases* which appears as part of the Appendix condenses in available form much information on disease. The book is composed of 31 chapters grouped into seven major units of study. In addition it includes a table of infectious diseases, a listing of items for a home first-aid kit, a listing of member agencies of the National Health Council, and an index.

OVERHOLSER, W. D. *Gunlock*. New York 11: The Macmillan Company. 1956. 184 pp. \$2.75. This is the story of Will Beeson, who was left a legacy of violence when Joe Pardee was killed. Joe had taken Will onto his huge Colorado cattle ranch and made him one of the top cowpunchers in the West. When settlers came to the valley, some of Pardee's hands meant to keep things intact in the time-honored "shoot first, ask questions later" manner of the frontier. Will could not agree with this and soon found himself in a deadlock of guns.

PALESTRANT, S. S. *Practical Pictorial Guide to Mechanisms and Machines*. New York 16: University Books, Inc., 404 Fourth Ave. 1956. 257 pp. \$4. Every conceivable kind of machine device, mechanical motion, and function is illustrated and explained in this unusual, practical, and helpful book. It aims to provide, side by side, the various methods in use for accomplishing any particular movement or work. These suggested means are classified and displayed in such a way as to facilitate the selection of those details or complete units to answer your needs.

The contents are divided into the following broad sections; Measurements, Fluids, Mechanics, Heat, Light, Sound, Electricity, Transportation, Communication, Tools, and Weapons. Under each will be found respective means and ideas. The purpose is not to produce a weighty text—rather to provide the seeker or browser with many leads and avenues of information and solution to accomplish the task on hand. The illustrations in this book have been assembled from many sources—catalogues, patent drawings, engineering brochures, and primary research books. The material is of the most recent and is not cluttered with useless or impractical dreams.

In addition each chapter has an introductory text which more fully explains that particular subject or field. The book also has a short, but comprehensive glossary of mechanical and technical terms. And also a simple, authoritative explanation of the procedure to follow in obtaining a patent on a mechanism or device.

PITTS, L. B.; MABELLE GLENN; L. E. WATTERS, and L. G. WERSON. *Music Makers*. Boston 17: Ginn and Company. 1956. 355 pp. (7½" x 10"). \$3.56. This is a collection of more than 85 songs and selections from operas for use with secondary-school students. These are grouped under fifteen major headings, including the holidays of Thanksgiving, Christmas, and Easter. The selection contains a wide variety of music which provides participation on the part of all students in the high school regardless of the range of voices. The songs are such that will appeal to youth at this age—some being old, familiar songs, while others are less familiar but of the type that students will enjoy learning to sing. Included also is information about Tchaikovsky and

Stravinsky. Some pictures in color add to the attractiveness of the book. Indexed.

POLLOCK, T. C., and H. M. ADAMS. *Speak Up!* New York 11: The Macmillan Company. 1956. 464 pp. \$3.40. This book stresses the relationship of reading, writing, and listening to effective speech while showing the student how to communicate effectively in a variety of situations. Chapter 1 deals with expressing one's thoughts through speech. Chapter 2 shows the student how to develop his personality through effective communication habits. The other eighteen chapters deal with learning to listen, conversation, the interview, storytelling, meetings, group discussions, speaking in public, debating, special talks, radio and TV talks, reading aloud, choral speaking, enjoying plays, presenting plays, how to use language, how to improve the voice, diction, and poise. The last three chapters are printed on colored paper so that the student may easily refer to them through the course.

One feature of this book which the authors hope will be especially helpful is the evaluation chart at the end of each chapter. By using the well-defined criteria, the student can rate himself on the particular activity of each chapter, checking both his growth in that skill and his need for improvement. Each chapter of this book is complete in itself, with exercises and activities supplied after each independent part within the chapter, and ample activity material at each chapter end. The study materials are called rehearsals—another way of emphasizing the lively quality of the speech arts. The progression of chapters is carefully planned, but because of the independent nature of each unit, the book is flexible and can be adapted to different organizations. Numerous cross-references help make it possible to use the chapters in any order required by the needs of the class. The titles of the chapters and their subdivisions are informative; the table of contents and complete index further aid the teacher who wishes to use the material in an order other than that of the book.

POTTLE, F. A., editor. *Boswell's London Journal*. New York 22: New American Library of World Literature, Inc. 1956. 320 pp. 50c. This, a Signet Book, contains the unabridged diary of Boswell—the intimate and vivid journal of a young man who ventured to London 200 years ago. It is the story of Boswell himself as well as a picture of the gaudy George III's day.

PRICE, CHRISTINE. *Song of the Wheels*. New York 3: Longmans, Green and Company. 1956. 214 pp. \$3. To Jared the ox-cart wheels sing an encouraging song. Things should be better for his family now that they are tenant farmers in this America of the early eighteenth century. The hard times as an indentured servant family in New York are over. They take no more stock in the Farmers Rebellion than they consider the remarks of the traveling packman. But, just as Father would not give up the eagle he had carved, so Jared found he could not pursue the easy course. What happened to the tenants who were here before, to thin Asa and Asa's father who played the fiddle?

First thing Jared knows, he and Asa are off with the Levelers army, off to release Asa's father from debtors' prison. Asa must go to work for his family. The Leveler cause has its ups and downs and often Jared wishes he were home. Will Prendergast, the leader, deserves his loyalty. Jared has the privilege of hearing his own father bravely testify in opposition to his own interest. In the end, the eagle, of all things, purchases for the family land of their own; the traveling packman had never forgotten the beauty of the carving. Asa and his people will settle not far away. Perhaps one day others will secure the justice for all which the Levelers sought.

PRICE, ROGER. *I'm for Me First*. New York 3: Ballantine Books. 1956. 144 pp. 35c. A political philosopher writes a humorous story about politics.

REY, L. D. *Nerves*. New York 3: Ballantine Books, Inc., 101 Fifth Ave. 1956. 160 pp. 35c. An explosive story of danger in a peace-time atomic plant,—a plant supplying electric power and radioactive isotopes for industry, agriculture, and medicine.

RIPLEY, ELIZABETH. *Goya*. New York 11: Oxford University Press. 1956. 69 pp. (8" x 10".) \$3. Francisco Goya, painter to the court of the King of Spain, did not have an easy life. When success came to him, other painters were jealous of his talents. He loved children and spent much of his time painting them; yet only one of his children lived to adulthood. Napoleon invaded Spain, and Goya witnessed the horrors of war in his beloved country. Yet despite hard times, Goya's zest for life—and furious energy as a painter—remained strong. He was famous for his portraits of the nobility. He painted people just as he saw them, and all admired the perfect likeness he achieved—even the king, though the pictures of him were not flattering. Goya was also famous for his beautiful church paintings, portraits of children, etchings, and dramatic, inspiring war pictures.

ROBERTS, CLYDE. *Word Attack: A Way to Better Reading*. New York 17: Harcourt, Brace and Company. 1956. 146 pp. \$1.72. This text has been prepared for remedial reading classes in grades 8, 9, and 10. The approach is made through the use of word clues and phonics. The author believes that the first step toward reading improvement is concentration upon word recognition, since speed and comprehension develop only after the pupil has learned to perceive and recognize words and to relate the printed symbols to sound and meaning. Each chapter in the text is a self-contained unit of study but no chapter is meant to be taught in isolation. The chapter divisions make it flexible for use in classes other than those in remedial reading. English teachers will find aid in the teaching of spelling, speech, and vocabulary in the chapters on the dictionary, word roots, prefixes, suffixes, and syllabication. Teachers of business subjects will find the chapters on the dictionary and syllabication useful. Teachers of developmental reading will find that the chapter on word roots will furnish the vocabulary work for a course in which speed, concentration, and vocabulary building are featured in training good readers to read still better. A teacher's guide of 24 pages is bound into the teachers edition. This supplies a day-to-day plan for integration.

ROBERTS, PAUL. *Patterns of English*. New York 17: Harcourt, Brace and Company. 1956. 320 pp. \$2.88. Teacher edition, including student's regular text and the 40 pages composing the teacher's guide. \$3.25. This book is an attempt to work out a method of teaching the English language according to the principles of linguistic science. It does not dwell on sentence errors as such. It is purely descriptive, and descriptive of good writing rather than poor writing. Such an approach should provide the tools for coping with such errors as arise with individual pupils and individual classes. Through the use of this approach, the author believes pupils will develop a feeling for the structure of our complex language. He provides not only an explanation of this process, but also, in the exercises, opportunity for conscious sentence building.

The book is composed of 64 chapters grouped under ten major parts: the four form classes, three important structure groups, sentence patterns, clusters, how sentences are built, function units in sentence patterns, joining sentence

patterns, intonation and punctuation, some other sentence patterns, and review. Indexed.

ROGERS, L. B.; FAY ADAMS; and WALKER BROWN. *Story of Nations*. New York. Henry Holt. 1956. 752 pp. \$4.88. This book is a revision of the earlier text. In it, events of the past few years and months have been put in perspective so as to bridge the gap between current events and history. It is an attempt to give youth a better understanding of world history—relating it to present day happenings. As the authors state: "Any really lasting peace must be based in part on a sympathetic understanding of other people—their historical background, their national inheritance, their geographic environment, their resources, their legitimate aspirations, and their contributions to civilization."

This revised edition follows closely the organization of the first version—a story of nations as a continuous narrative, not the topical organization as was characteristic of textbooks thirty and more years ago. Here the authors present world history in units of comprehension or parts. The early parts (one through five) tell the stories of ancient civilizations and nations. The next three parts cover religions, feudal times, and the Renaissance. Parts Nine through Twenty-one tell each modern nation's story from the beginning down to the present. Recent happenings in each country are told briefly, with emphasis on events of internal significance. Matters of international importance are treated in the last two Parts—Parts Twenty-two and Twenty-three, which cover world events from before World War I to the present.

The last Part is of particular interest to today's students. The United Nations, the Cold War, the ferment in Asia, and the open clash between the communistic and the democratic nations supply the material for Part Twenty-three. It brings into sharp focus all the trends and influences scattered through the stories of individual nations. It brings home to the pupil the reality of history, because the subject materials of the final Part are still the urgent themes of daily newspaper headlines.

Geography, the story of people, and their contributions to civilization are emphasized in each part of the book. The authors have tried to exclude everything that did not add to the story of nations for the ninth- or tenth-grade pupil. In other words, they present a limited number of major topics surrounded by a host of associative details. The style of writing in the book is direct, simple, and friendly. It has been written for the capacity of the average student in grades nine and ten. In addition to a selected list of books for general reading as a classroom library, and other cited sources of information throughout the text, there are many pictures, maps, charts, and a time line. Each section also contains questions for discussion, suggested projects, suggested topics for talks, and a summary of the section or part.

ROSSITER, CLINTON. *The American Presidency*. New York 22: New American Library. 1956. 168 pp. 35c. This book tells about the ten dramatic roles of the President of the United States as Chief of State, Chief Executive, Leader of Foreign Policy, Commander-in-Chief of the Armed Forces, Chief Legislator, Chief of Party, Voice of the People, Protector of Peace, Manager of Prosperity, and Leader of the World's Free Nations.

ROWE, VIOLA. *Girl in a Hurry*. New York 3: Longmans, Green and Company, Inc. 1956. 180 pp. \$2.75. Poor Missy! Her mother tried to give her everything, except what she wanted most—to grow up. Tap and Karen, her friends, have found summer jobs, but Missy's mother doesn't even want her to

try. When Missy learns of a way to make money, she keeps it a secret as the woman who gave her the job suggests. It is hard, hot work persuading people they want to have their pictures taken. The commissions do mount up and Missy buys a new dress. The first time she wears it she has a horrid time. She finds this picture-selling she entered into so innocently is a crooked business. Missy has to go to court. Every cent of the money must be returned and she has given half to the women who skipped town.

Laughable scrapes often follow Missy's attempts to earn back part of the money serving lunches. In time she finds what kind of work she enjoys and is successful doing. The knocks and the achievements and the use of initiative have caused Missy to do a whole lot of growing up. Things are more and more fun.

RYDBERG, ERNIE. *The Golden Window*. New York 3: Longmans, Green and Company. 1956. 143 pp. \$2.50. Debbie is the average college freshman, suffering the usual going-away-from-home qualms. She has big dreams but doesn't know which ones she wants to be real. Her roommates turn out to be two highly different personalities. One is the sensitive, artistic Florence. The other is Chatter, the mixer and fixer; one who seizes credit and contacts regardless. Naturally, Debbie and Flo gravitate toward each other. They share confidences and enthusiasms and go places together. But Flo shows Debbie all the excellent things they have to learn from Chatter—doing something about ideas, organizing for success, courageously going ahead. Also their attempts to "handle" their roommate teaches them about people in general. They learn a good deal from the South American beauty who is studying astronomy, and from the awkward genius who so enjoys his role in the play.

*The Sargent Guide to Summer Camps*, 11th edition. Boston 8: Porter Sargent. 1956. 128 pp. Cloth, \$2.50; paper, \$1.10. This *Guide* is a representative presentation of private summer camps throughout the country. It includes a wealth of diverse and challenging summer programs for boys and girls. Camps are classified in statistical sections as follows: boys camps, girls camps, brother and sister camps, unusual opportunities, summer programs for the handicapped and maladjusted, Canadian camps, and schools with summer sessions or summer camps. Indexed.

*The Saturday Evening Post, 1955*. New York 22: Random House. 1956. 351 pp. \$8.50. From the rich harvest of outstanding stories published in *The Saturday Evening Post* during 1955, the editors of that magazine have selected twenty of the best for publication in this popular collection. This year's volume includes novelettes by Philip Wylie and Paul Gallico, and short stories by such well-known authors as William Faulkner, James Street, Arthur Gordon, Paul Horgan, Gerald Kersh, and Farley Mowat. This is the eighteenth collection to be published in this annual series and, like its predecessors, reflects the infinite variety that is to be found each week in the pages of one of America's best-loved magazines.

SCHOLZ, JACKSON. *A Fighting Chance*. New York 16: William Morrow and Company. 1956. 222 pp. \$2.75. Jim Carter had one ambition: he wanted to be a varsity football coach. The opportunity came when his Alma Mater, Granger College, turned to him for help the year after his graduation. There was only a fighting chance that he would succeed, for the Granger Lancers, saddled with a mortgaged stadium, were obliged to take on bigtime opponents to insure large gate receipts. To make matters worse, Jim's old enemy, Cy Linker, was still on the team.

As Jim expected, a hectic football season followed. Some of the problems came as a complete surprise to him. He would never forget the afternoon he spent masterfully talking an overpowering dowager into letting her son take up the "brutal" sport of football. Handling Cy's corrosive effect on the team and subduing the Carter-Must-Go Club were not as amusing. But when the climax came, Jim proved that he had every right to be called Coach.

SHEPHERD, W. R. *Historical Atlas*, eighth edition. New York 3: Barnes and Noble, Inc., 105 Fifth Ave. 1956. 363 pp. \$12.50. This eighth edition, composed of 226 pages of maps and an index of 115 pages, contains all the maps of the seventh edition (1929) and a special supplement of historical maps for the period since 1929 prepared by C. S. Hammond and Company. The maps are done in full color. The maps covering the period since 1929 show boundaries after World War I and also after World War II as well as the retreat of colonialism in the post-war period. All maps are arranged in chronological order from 2100 BC to 1955.

SLOANE, EUGENE H. *Words and Their Ways*. Annapolis, Maryland: The Owl Press, Bay Ridge. 1955. 112 pp. \$1. This little book is an original approach to the study of words. It gives the origins of most of the important words of our English vocabulary and at the same time acquaints the reader with the great literary and philosophical ideas involved in common words like "pretty," "art," "nature," and "matter." The author rather convincingly demonstrates that only by an imaginative study of word origins can we gain sensitivity to words and their use. The book should make good supplementary reading for the more gifted students in high-school English and foreign language courses.

SMITH, BRADFORD. *Rogers' Rangers and the French and Indian War*. New York 22: Random House. 1956. 184 pp. \$1.50. In 1758 no one could tell whether North America was going to be French or British. But one thing was sure. The colonists weren't going to put up much longer with the Indian raids, the burning of villages, and the cruel murder of women and children. The Indians were allies of the French, of course, who had fought steadily and successfully against the British.

The marching lines of British redcoats made a perfect target for the enemy lurking behind trees and rocky ledges. So when Robert Rogers of New Hampshire offered to raise a company of Rangers, the British told him to go ahead. By 1758 there were five companies of Rogers' Rangers—one of the toughest and most heroic of fighting units in American history. Boldly they pushed into enemy territory on one scouting expedition after another, wading through icy streams and slugging their way through the tangled woods of unknown territory. And all the while the British under General Wolfe were creeping up on the French at Quebec in preparation for the great battle on the Plains of Abraham—the battle which brought defeat to the French forces under Montcalm.

SMITH, D. E. *Beyond the Gates*. New York 10: E. P. Dutton and Company. 1956. 256 pp. \$3.50. The novel opens in 1920 when Miss Marion visits the orphanage in Huffley and hires as cook and housekeeper fifteen-year-old Lydia, painfully shy, but strong and willing. It is with the Howards that Lydia finds the family life and love she has never known. The whole forms a warm family story over a span of time that enables the reader to know and love a wide and varied cast of characters, together with charming vignettes of

Yorkshire life, gay family parties, and all the lively events of three generations in the family home.

SMITH, T. V. *Live Without Fear*. New York 22: New American Library. 1956. 192 pp. 35c. In this book, the author has brought together the wisdom of great minds of the Western World, from Aristotle to Lincoln to Churchill as a guide in making wise decisions in one's daily life. It is a book of advice on surmounting the problems of modern living—an aid to getting along better with family, friends, and employers.

SORENSEN, VIRGINIA. *Miracles on Maple Hill*. New York 17: Harcourt Brace and Company. 1956. 180 pp. \$2.95. A whirl of smoke from the sugarhouse was the only hint of spring on the snowy day that Marly, Joe, Mother, and Father drove out from the city to open the small farmhouse on Maple Hill. A miracle was happening even as they arrived, according to their neighbor Mr. Chris—the first miracle of the new year when sap begins to rise in the maple trees and it is time to make syrup. Soon the woods and fields around their new home would provide one miracle after another, and Mr. Chris promised Marly that she would see them all.

More than anything, Marly was counting on miracles—not only the ones that would happen outdoors but also the slower, more important kind that happen inside people. The family was moving to Maple Hill in the hope that just such a miracle would occur, for ever since Father had come home from a prisoner-of-war camp, he had been tired and jumpy and cross. As the weeks went by, the bickering and unhappiness they had known gave way to a growing warmth and understanding. The midnight rescue of a family of foxes, an unexpected visit from the local hermit, and a frantic effort to save the maple-sugar harvest were only some of the events that filled their exciting first year at the farm and drew the four of them together once more.

STRANG, RUTH, and REGINA HEAVEY. *Teen-Age Tales*. Boston 16: D. C. Heath and Company. 1956. 264 pp. \$2.20. This book (Book 3) composed of 21 stories adapted from popular magazines and pamphlets has been added to the *Teen-Age Tales* series. Like the first two books in this series by Strang and Roberts, this one is brief, colorful, and easy to read. The whole series is an answer to the question, "How can I interest the nonreaders and the slow readers in reading?" Book 3 is designed for the upper high-school years. The stories are somewhat more mature than those in Books 1 and 2. Boy-girl relationships are dealt with on a more grown-up plane—but the level of reading difficulty is fifth-sixth grade. Each of these three books is on this level. Each has five parts dealing with the following areas of interest: teenagers today, adventure and suspense, true sports stories, science stories, and animal stories. In order not to interrupt the short, breezy stories, questions are provided at the back of each book.

The inviting format of *Teen-Age Tales* should attract students' favorable attention. A lively variety of two-color illustrations reflects the action of the stories. These illustrations appeal to slow readers and reduce their built-up resistance to reading. The type is large and easy to read. A *Teacher's Manual* is available for each book.

STUDDS, R. F. Rear Admiral. *Steady As You Go*. New York 16: Dodd, Mead and Company. 1956. 307 pp. \$3. While Jack Power, a college student on a summer work assignment with the United States Coast and Geodetic Survey, kept a solitary vigil atop a high steel tower, to communicate with his chief many miles away, he observed strange red and blue flashes. These set off a chain

of events that were to affect the course of his career when he was graduated as a civil engineer and accepted a commission as ensign in the Survey. His assignments followed devious—but certainly never dull—paths, through many wonderful and worth-while adventures, as he learned the ways of experienced men whose lives are dedicated to the welfare of the nation.

**SWIGGETT, HOWARD.** *The Power and the Prize.* New York 3: Ballantine Books. 1956. Paperbound, 35c; hardbound, \$3.50. Cleves Barwick is a bachelor of forty, attractive and highly successful. He has come to London to conclude a complex business negotiation with huge international implications. But at a delicate point in the proceedings he happens to meet Rachel Linka, a widow and a refugee, and finds himself deeply in love. To Barwick, this seems a purely personal matter . . . but is it? Not until he returns to America does he realize how vitally this unusual woman can affect his carefully built career. This is a drama of international business—where private destinies and immense corporate enterprises are inextricably entwined.

**TENN, WILLIAM.** *The Human Angle.* New York 3: Ballantine Books. 1956. Paperbound, 35c; hardbound, \$2. A collection of eight science-fiction stories.

**TREECE, HENRY.** *Viking's Dawn.* New York 10: Criterion Books, Inc. 1956. 253 pp. \$8. It was the sharp tang of salt in the wind, the love of adventure and exploration, as well as the quest for treasure, that called the Norse Vikings from their deep valleys and fjords to the wild waters of the North Sea. The call reached Harald while he was still a boy, and, when at last the fine new vessel, the *Nameless*, slipped her moorings and sailed for plunder and fortune, he was aboard as one of the crew of tough, hardy northmen.

The great Viking warrior, Thorkell Fairhair, was the ship's captain, and from the shelter of their fjord he and Ragnar, his half-loyal, half-treacherous blood brother and lieutenant, took the *Nameless* to the coasts of Scotland and to the Irish routes where the deep-laden treasure ships sailed. But disaster befell Thorkell and his courageous crew, and many good men fell before the sword and axe or were swept away in the roaring Atlantic before Harald at last found his way home, older and wiser for the sufferings and hardships as well as the triumphs of his voyage.

**TUNNARD, CHRISTOPHER and H. H. REED.** *American Skyline.* New York 22: New American Library of World Literature, Inc. 1956. 224 pp. 50c. Presenting a lively panorama of American civilization as it is reflected in the art of our homes, public buildings, and civic environment, this volume discusses the changes in city development brought about by the railroad and the automobile, the rise of the industrial mill town, the switch from village greens to large city parks, the growth of the country club and the suburbs, the origins of shopping centers, and other innovations of modern urban living. The authors urge cities and states to establish art commissions and encourage housing experts, architects, government departments, and business groups to consider our cultural heritage in working out large-scale urban improvements and to make their communities "the pride of the region, the pride of the nation, and the glory of the American we offer to the world."

**TUTE, WARREN.** *The Cruiser.* New York 3: Ballantine Books. 1956. Paperbound, 50c; hardbound, \$3.50. This is a story about the Royal Navy, a story about professional men—the R. N.—the men whose career it is. Every man-of-war is a compromise built for a special purpose—an agreed mixture of speed, armour, offensive and defensive weapons, seaworthiness, and living

accommodation. A battleship has huge guns, is heavily armoured but is usually slow. A destroyer has no armour, light weapons and is very fast. Midway between the two stands the cruiser.

*United States Government Organization Manual 1956-57.* Washington 25, D. C.: Superintendent of Documents. 1956. 788 pp. \$1. This annual *Manual* is the official organization handbook of the Federal government. It contains the constitution of the United States and sections descriptive of the agencies in the legislative, judicial, and executive branches. Supplemental information following these sections includes (1) brief descriptions of quasi-official agencies and selected international organizations, (2) charts of the more complex agencies, to governmental publications, and to certain ancillary material. It also contains the names of the members of Congress and the names of the head officials of each organization. There is also a page reference to all names of individuals included in the text and a comprehensive index.

VERNE, JULES. *Around the World in Eighty Days.* New York 16: Dodd, Mead and Company. 1956. 256 pp. \$3.25. Was there ever a book with so much sheer fun as this story of the wager of Phileas Fogg at the London Reform club and his mad flight around the globe? Who can forget the plight of Passepartout, the valet extraordinaire, who forgot to turn off the gas jet in his room and for eighty days, or 115,200 minutes, could do nothing about it but worry? Or the implacable Detective Fix who daily expected the warrant for Mr. Fogg's arrest to catch up with him, only to be disappointed each succeeding day? Who can forget the ride on the elephant or the escape from the Indians or the rescue of the beautiful maiden or the hundred and one breathless incidents that make up this story?

When it was first published, it is said that idlers in Paris cafés placed their biggest bets on the outcome of Mr. Fogg's fabulous journey and that foreign correspondents cabled from France the latest news about the Fogg entourage as each new chapter on the story was released. The appearance this year of a star-studded motion picture of the novel offers an opportunity for this new edition and a still wider circle of readers of one of the most delectable tales between covers. Anthony Boucher has contributed an introduction and there are sixteen full-page illustrations.

WAGENHEIM, H. H., and others. "Our Reading Heritage": *Exploring Life* (1956. 704 pp. \$3.88); *Ourselves and Others* (1956. 704 pp. \$3.96); *This Is America* (1956. 768 pp. \$4.16); and *England and the World* (1956. 768 pp. \$4.40). New York 17: Henry Holt and Company, 383 Madison Ave. Anthologies should serve several very important and useful purposes in the teaching of literature. They should provide young people with rich and varied reading experiences that will broaden their horizons and awaken entirely new interests. Anthologies should increase an understanding and enjoyment of good writing, and whet the appetite for the kind of reading that is worthy of young people and that will contribute to their growth as enlightened and discriminating adults. If anthologies serve these purposes well, they not only meet young people at their own level of experience, ability, and interest; they also raise that level by introducing students to a body of literature, both American and world that extends their experiences and interests and motivates them to improve their abilities. Anthologies are a rich and carefully planned body of selections for common study that will lead students to share their reading experiences and so discover new understandings of both the ideas presented and the craftsmanship of the various authors.

The editors of "Our Reading Heritage" believed that each book in the series could serve these important purposes if enough time and thought were devoted to discovering how these purposes could be best achieved and the kind of organization that would give unity not only to the Parts in each book but also to each book as a whole and to the entire series. They believed that the focus of this series should be upon helping the student to understand himself and the world in which he lives. They believed that he could best find that understanding in literature of the highest quality because it deals with human experience and personal values and because it provides a never-ending source of enjoyment. Here the student could see his own dreams and disappointments reflected in the lives of others, could experience vicariously the challenges and responsibilities he will some day have to face, and could grow in an awareness and understanding of people who differ from himself because they have lived in another time or place.

The selections chosen for this series, therefore, had to meet the following criteria: (1) they must allow the student to project himself into the experiences which are the subject matter of literature; (2) they must present people, ideas, and emotions honestly and artistically; (3) they must allow the student to see related experiences interpreted in many ways and by authors of both the past and the present; and (4) they must lead him to see that in the full life there is a place for the imaginative and spiritual as well as the practical. Young people today live in a technological age in which continuous emphasis is placed upon science and industry. They are reminded night and day through the mass media of newspapers, radio, and television of the commercial and materialistic aspects of life. The spiritual, aesthetic, and humanistic aspects need to be greatly strengthened, and great literature can contribute significantly to this strengthening. Young people need to examine their own values and the values of society more critically. Literature provides the means and the direction because it exposes the superficial and false as dramatically as it portrays the genuine and worthwhile. "Our Reading Heritage" provides the highest quality of literature drawn from both the well-known and the less familiar to bring young people challenging experiences.

To support the broad focus of the series, each book in "Our Reading Heritage" has its own carefully defined focus related to the needs of young people at a particular age. In *Exploring Life*, the ninth-year anthology, the focus is on helping the student to broaden his horizons and point of view as he sees himself in relation to the world around him and grows in awareness and understanding. The focus of *Ourselves and Others*, the tenth-year anthology, is on the student's understanding of himself and others and his growth as an individual and a responsible member of society. In *This Is America*, the anthology for the eleventh year, the focus is on helping the student to interpret the America in which he lives by understanding the men and women who were responsible for its growth, its ideals, and its achievements. *England and the World* is the twelfth-year anthology. Here the focus is on helping the student to understand those universal ideas and problems shared by people of many ages and many lands and to recognize the role he must play as a responsible adult. In "Our Reading Heritage" the student discovers that literature is as much a part of his heritage as the freedoms and privileges he now enjoys because of the sacrifices of others. This heritage of literature is enriched and dramatized through interpretive illustrations which represent the

finest in modern art and which increase the enjoyment and understanding he finds in literature.

The editors of "Our Reading Heritage" felt that much could be gained both in the arrangement of the selections and in the development of a teaching program if a similar basic organization were followed in each of the books in the series. The kind of organization grew naturally out of the focus of the series; namely, an organization that was built around themes related to human experiences and universal needs. The themes in each book were then determined on the basis of the specific focus of each individual book, and the selections were grouped together around these themes.

Each book is divided into a number of parts, each part devoted to the development of a theme. The selections for each part—all of them related to the theme—are chosen from a wide variety of types of literature, often combining the classic and the modern. These are listed at the beginning of each part and identified according to types. The introduction to each part is designed to acquaint the student with the theme and to relate it to his own experiences or to ideas or concerns which are meaningful to him. Because this theme organization brings together a group of related experiences which are interpreted in many ways, the editors believe that the student will develop richer associations and understandings from this reading. They also believe that this theme organization will create an interest in a wide variety of authors and an open-mindedness toward all types of literature.

The selections in each part fall into two groups: those intended for teaching and for which study aids have been prepared, and those intended as enrichment of the theme and as a free reading experience for the student. These short, supplementary selections should be used to elicit individual, spontaneous reactions. They were carefully chosen for both their quality and their significance to young people. They serve an important purpose by leading students to discover the satisfaction of quiet communion with literature.

The teaching program in each part follows a consistent plan of organization in each book and throughout the series. Immediately following each of the treated selections there is a short personalized biography of the author relating his background and experience to the selection, whenever that is possible.

Questions and instructive comments are included to help the student understand and appreciate the selection. The first few questions are directed primarily toward helping him grasp those important ideas, events, and qualities of the selection which he needs to know in order to discuss it. Those which follow will help him interpret what he has read and, finally, relate his reading to his own interests and concerns.

Another section of the teaching program directs the student's attention to the selection as a piece of literature. Here he is introduced to types of literature and techniques, but they are never taught in isolation. This instruction is always inductive and grows out of the nature of the selection and the purpose which that selection can best serve in the teaching of literature.

Special attention has been given to an understanding of unfamiliar words which occur in the selection and which the student should make a part of his reading vocabulary. The exercises help him to discover word meanings through context clues, and to see how words change in meaning and function when they are used in a special way or when prefixes and suffixes are added. Each word taught in these exercises appears in the Glossary with a definition that fits the

context of the exercise sentence. Students are thus able to find the meaning of a word they do not know while the motivation for learning is strong.

The study aids included in the section on poetry cover both the understanding and the interpretation of the poem and a consideration of the forms and techniques of poetic expression. Terms are defined and illustrated and students are encouraged to demonstrate their understanding by applying it to the poem under study or to their own poems.

When students have completed the reading of a part, they are given an opportunity to consider the relationship between the selections in that part and to apply the knowledge and information which they have gained from the end-of-selection study aids. In *Now think back* both teacher and student will find a wealth of suggestions for making comparisons and interpretations that give added meaning to the theme of the part. In *Things to do* they will find individual and class activities which grow out of the reading experience and which lead to the improvement of their own skills in oral and written expression. Here, too, they will find in *More to read* a carefully selected bibliography of books which are closely related to the theme of the part and which will develop an appetite for reading. The index at the end of each book lists not only the selections and authors but also the items covered in the study aids. The student never has to search through the book to find the definition of a term. He can see at a glance where each term is defined and where it is again treated or reviewed.

**WALDHORN, ARTHUR.** *Concise Dictionary of the American Language*. New York 16: Philosophical Library. 1956. 186 pp. \$4.50. John Witherspoon, a Pennsylvania minister of the eighteenth century, first used the term "Americanism" to identify expressions different from those common in Great Britain. Today we distinguish two kinds of Americanism: those words, phrases, or idioms originating in the United States; and those previously in the English language but given new meaning since their adoption in America. Americanisms selected for this book range from Colonial days to the present and include both categories described above. Within the limited space available for each word—so far as accuracy has been possible—its date of earliest usage in America is given. Where a word has more than one signification, the variants are listed chronologically.

**WEBER, J. S., editor.** *Good Reading*. New York 22: New American Library of World Literature, Inc. 1956. 288 pp. 50c. This book contains short descriptions of over 1500 books from all periods and fields, including: novels, poetry, plays, history, religion, philosophy, sciences, psychology, politics, etc. Also included is a comprehensive listing of the better paperbound books. The publisher is given for all the books and the price for most of them. A Mentor Book.

**WHEELER, SIR MORTIMER.** *Still Digging*. New York 10: E. P. Dutton and Company. 1956. 236 pp. \$4. Sir Mortimer Wheeler, eminent English archaeologist, is called, in *The London Times Literary Supplement*, "the greatest archaeologist of his day." He has been digging, with intervals only during the First and Second World Wars, for the last forty-five years, and his work has taken him all over the world—from Roman Verulamium in England to sites in Southern India and the Valley of the Indus. Administratively and academically he has served as Director of the National Museum of Wales, Keeper of the London Museum, Director of the Institute of Archaeology in London (which he helped to found as a teaching center) and Director-General

of Archaeology in India. He is at present President of the Society of Antiquaries and Secretary of the British Academy.

A life of such distinction, variety and interest has inspired an absorbing autobiography. But this book is also significant beyond the personal in that the author's lifetime has been a period of remarkable transition in the history of archaeological craftsmanship. Before the First World War archaeology was still an unorganized discipline; today most universities have special departments for this new science, and research carries the student into fields of inquiry which the student of forty years ago would have considered alien to his subject. Archaeology is a fascinating subject, and a life devoted to it makes a fascinating book—especially the life of a man who has grown with his specialty and by helping to open an intriguing, new field, has adventurously widened the horizons of our knowledge and imagination.

WILSON, H. R. *Choral Musicianship Series. Book One, for Soprano and Alto.* Morristown, New Jersey: Silver Burdett Company. 1955. 64 pp. 84c. Accompanying record, \$4.95, net. This is the first book of a new series for secondary schools, designed to promote an understanding of fine music and skill in music reading. The book contains a wide variety of numbers, selections from the finest in choral literature, which may be used as separate selections or for building programs for special occasions. Outstanding features of the book include an introductory section on "Artistic Choral Singing," notes on music reading, and study helps for each song—for growth in understanding, appreciation, and enjoyment. A 33½ r.p.m. record is available. It includes recordings of all the selections in the book by a chorus under the author's direction. These recordings are models of style, tone, diction, and phrasing. They serve both for teacher and pupil guidance and for listening enjoyment.

YOUNGBERG, N. R. *The Queen's Gold.* New York 16: William Morrow and Company. 1956. 223 pp. \$2.75. An English boy and his parents are bound for Hong Kong in the year 1843. Near the coast of Borneo their ship is attacked and taken by Malay pirates, whose object is to seize the Queen's gold, which is the ship's cargo. Steven's parents are killed; but Steven, whom the pirates have left for dead on the beach, regains consciousness to find himself in a Dyak village, tended by a friendly native woman. When he has recovered enough to take note of his surroundings, he realizes that not a single man is to be seen in the settlement. And when the men of the village finally return, the boy soon learns, to his horror, that the people who have given him asylum are members of a tribe of head-hunters. What follows is a wholly convincing account of the English lad's adaptation to his savage surroundings. Its climax is the part he plays in the ultimate fate of the Queen's gold.

## News Notes

**YEARBOOK REFLECTS PERSISTENT PROBLEMS AND CHANGING SCENES**—The 1956 Yearbook of the Department of Rural Education, NEA, *Teaching in the Small Community*, treats a wide range of problems of teachers in small communities. Earlier publications of the Department addressed to similar problems include: *Organization of Curriculum for One-Teacher Schools* (1933); *Newer Types of Instruction in Small Rural Schools* (1938); *Community Resources in Rural Schools* (1939); *Child Development and Tool Subjects in Rural Areas* (1941); *Guidance in Rural Schools* (1942); *The Rural Supervisor at Work* (1949); and *The Child in the Rural Environment* (1951).

In discussing the present circumstances of teachers as they live and work in small communities, the 1956 Yearbook reflects the many significant changes which have taken place in rural America. In 1930, approximately 25 per cent of the United States population lived on farms, while 19 per cent was classified as rural non-farm and 56 per cent as urban. Today, only 15.6 per cent of the population lives on farms, while 25.6 per cent is classified as rural non-farm and 58.8 per cent as urban. In 1930, nearly 149,000 one-teacher schools were operating; today only about 39,000 of these remain. The number of school districts has been sharply reduced—from 127,530 in 1932 to 59,270 on July 1, 1955—as states have sought to organize districts capable of providing the range and quality of educational offerings which rural life today demands.

In 1956, therefore, the Yearbook is concerned with teaching in small communities, rather than with teaching in one-teacher schools exclusively. The modern rural school is likely to be one that serves an entire community, usually including a hamlet, village, or small-town center and the surrounding open-country area. Nevertheless, the school in a small community tends to be small (about 64 per cent of all school districts which operate schools have fewer than ten teachers; only about 11 per cent have forty or more), so concern must be given to the distinctive problems faced by teachers in small schools. Since about eight million children now travel to schools in school buses, special problems arise from this circumstance.

More than all else, the Yearbook is concerned with the teaching and learning which goes on in schools serving small communities. Life in small communities has much in common with life in other communities, but it also has its distinctive qualities, some of which have special significance for learning. The child's present needs and problems are what they are because of the interrelationships of his life and that of his community.

The Yearbook attests once more that, well used, the resources of rural and small-community environments are infinitely valuable for learning what children growing up in this nation and this world need to know and understand. This Yearbook gives insight into these resources and their use, and practical help on varied problems faced by the thousands of persons who live and teach in small communities. Copies of this Yearbook may be secured at \$8.00 each from the NEA, 1201-16th Street, N. W., Washington 6, D. C.

**EXPAND HOME-ROOM SYSTEM**—Re-organization of the present Evanston Township High School home-room system began in September when three of the large homerooms—324, 355, and 364—were combined into a “division”, with a division principal, instead of a home-room director, in charge. Within two years—by September 1958—the administration plans to have the total reorganization in effect by having four “schools” or divisions, each with one-fourth of the students from each of the four grades—9 through 12.

This reorganization will come about as a result of a study of the present home-room organization and counseling services, authorized by the Board of Education. Since February four consultants—Dr. Frank S. Endicott, Northwestern U.; Dr. Camilla M. Low, University of Wisconsin; Dr. Van Miller and Dr. C. W. Sanford, both of the University of Illinois, have been at work studying the present system in order to determine its strengths and weaknesses. The consultants conferred at length with many groups, including parents, students, home-room directors, special counselors, teachers, and administrative officers. They also surveyed basic data regarding the school, the characteristics of the students, Evanston as a community, and the results of follow-up studies of graduates. The consultants have not made their report to various groups, including the Board of Education.

Because the recommendations of the consultants involve a major reorganization of the home-room and counseling setup, Dr. L. S. Michael, superintendent-principal, stated that the plan with some modifications would be put into effect gradually during the next two school years.

The reorganization of ETHS into four “schools” or divisions of from 650-850 students will maintain the present basic organization of “schools within a school,” which has often been cited as giving ETHS the advantages of a small school within a large one. The consultants were impressed with the desire of the faculty and students to maintain this pattern of organization and have proposed, they believe, a way to strengthen this idea and to make it even more effective in the operation and organization of ETHS.

Each division will eventually consist of three present home-rooms, one on each floor, if the consultants’ recommendations are put into effect. Thus, 104, for example, in its division might be organized as a “commons room” or “general lounge,” with small rooms provided for the main office of the division, for counselors in individual conferences, and for student activities. This would be the basic place-identification for pupils of the division.

The four “schools” or divisions, the consultants believe, have numerous advantages over 10-15 homerooms of from 200-250 students. Among the major advantages which they believe the plan includes are these: (1) A more definite classification of the responsibilities of both administrative and guidance personnel. The division principal, for example, will be the administrative, curricular, and guidance leader of his division. (2) Assisting him in counseling will be four half-time counselors, each responsible for helping about 200 pupils through their four years of high school. These counselors will be professionally trained persons interested in counseling. For the first time a pupil will have the same counselor for four years, thus enabling counselor, pupil, and parent to know each other well, a requisite for successful guidance. (3) Each division will have its own PTA group with representation on the ETHS PTA Council. (4) Each teacher will be assigned to one of the divisions for curriculum work. A few who teach required courses will teach exclusively within a division, thus enabling them to know their pupils better and to be more easily available to

them for conferences.—Here's Your High School, Evanston Township High School

**AVIATION PERIODICALS FOR TEACHERS AND PUPILS**—Willis C. Brown, Specialist for Aviation Education in the U. S. Office of Education, has revised his list of aviation periodicals for teacher and pupils during the past summer. This is a 5-page mimeographed list of 36 periodicals devoted to flying, aviation trade news, model plane hobbies, engineering, and general aviation interests. These selections are suitable for junior, senior, and adult readers and are intended to be of aid in understanding current developments in aviation as related to life today and in the future. Copies of this list, *Aviation Periodicals for Teachers and Pupils*, Circular No. 381, may be secured without charge from the Office of Education, U. S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Washington 25, D. C.

**A NEW CHALKBOARD**—The nerve-stabbing squeal of chalk on blackboards may soon join the little red school-house in education limbo. Newest chalkboard, green not black, is a sheet of plastic and glass fibre with a silent surface, called K-lite. The softness, which eliminates the agonizing squeal, also reduces glare and makes for easier reading, according to the manufacturer, Kessler Products Company, Inc., of Youngstown, Ohio. Milt Kessler, president, has announced plans for early national distribution of the new material in sizes up to 12 by 3-1/2 feet. Also available in a variety of colors to take crayons and water colors, K-lite can be purchased and installed for a fraction of the cost of standard slate boards and requires no special tools or skill.

**CONDUCT CODE FOR PARTIES**—Because many parties are held during the school year the following code of conduct endorsed by the PTA and the ETHS administration has been adopted. The code originally was drawn up by parent councils of five schools in the Hartford, Connecticut, area. It is described as a "sensible basis of good conduct and good manners."

(1) Insist that your boy or girl go to no party to which he or she is not invited and insist that no one be allowed at your party who is not invited. (2) Have no parties at your house unless you are there. The parent council feels strongly that every party of teen-agers should be chaperoned adequately. (3) Impress upon your son or daughter that when he or she is driving someone in a car, he or she is responsible for that person's safety. (4) Think of this: Do you as a parent, have the right to serve any intoxicating drinks to someone else's children? If you do serve them or have alcoholic beverages available, then you, as an adult, are responsible. (5) The parent council disapproves of parties running into the small hours of the morning. Please insist that your boy or girl telephone you if he or she is to be out later than agreed. (6) We feel that your boys should ask the parents of their girls what time the girls are expected home and comply with the parents' wishes. They should advise the parents where they are going.—Here's Your High School, Evanston Township High School, Evanston, Illinois

**BOOKLIST**—The committee of the Division of Libraries for Children and Young People of the New Jersey Library Association announces the publication of their new booklist *New Jersey in Books for Girls and Boys and Young Adults*. This six-page annotated booklist should prove invaluable to librarians, as well as elementary and secondary-school teachers, because it indicates both the age level and the specific area dealt with in each of the books.

Another noteworthy feature of this booklist is the section dealing with non-fiction books about New Jersey. In general, this list will be useful in all phases

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of teaching because it deals with so many aspects of the state of New Jersey. Copies are available at twenty-five cents (25c) each from: Miss Joyce H. Brodowski, N.J.L.A. Publications Expediter, State Teachers College, Trenton 5, New Jersey.

**SUNSHINE**—This new monthly magazine for India's teen-agers holds special appeal for young Americans also. Published in both English and Hindi, it features science and nature stories, tales of India, and how-to-do-it articles. It interprets young India to the youth of the West by means of a well-prepared and attractive publication. *Sunshine*'s editor, G. H. Krishnayya, patterned his publication after the type of American magazine he came to know while serving as educational attache for the Indian Embassy in Washington, D. C. Sold chiefly to school libraries, the magazine is used in high schools in Bombay and elsewhere. An annual subscription may be ordered for two dollars from Manager, Sunshine Publishing House, 5556 Shivajinagar, Poona 5, India. Make checks payable to the Sunshine account at the National City Bank of New York in Bombay, India.

**NEW ENRICHMENT RECORDS**—With the release of new titles in the *Enrichment Records* series, young people now can hear twenty-four landmarks, which built America, come alive on these authentic dramatizations with musical backgrounds and sound effects. The new titles are *Ben Franklin of Old Philadelphia*, *Lincoln and Douglas: Years of Decision*, *Robert Fulton and the Steamboat* and *The Panama Canal*. They are based on the famous Landmark Books of the same titles. The four new titles are available on two 33 1/3 rpm LPs. *Enrichment Records* are sent "on approval for preview." They are modestly priced for top-quality record production.

Also available are six new *Enrichment Filmstrips* based on *Enrichment Records* and *Landmark Books*.

With the release of these six new *Enrichment Filmstrips*, teachers now are able to enrich curriculum text material on twelve landmarks, which built America, with a filmstrip, a recording and a book, all of which are correlated for more effective teaching, but each of which makes a distinctive contribution and may be used independently. All the six new *Enrichment Filmstrips*, released this fall, treat basic curriculum subject matter: *Landing of the Pilgrims*, *Ben Franklin of Old Philadelphia*, *Daniel Boone*; *Opening of the Wilderness*, *Robert Fulton and the Steamboat*, *Lee and Grant at Appomattox*, and *Building the first Transcontinental Railroad*.

Each filmstrip is correlated with the *Enrichment Record* and the *Landmark Book* of the same title with just enough planned overlapping of information and ideas to reinforce learning. Each capitalizes the unique potentialities of its particular medium to complement and enhance the other. Each *Enrichment Filmstrip* is in full color, approximately 45 frames, 35 mm., with captions carefully planned to enrich picture content. Educators may obtain *Enrichment Filmstrips* "on approval for preview." The price for the set of six is \$35. If purchased individually the price is \$6.50 each. For complete information, or to secure the filmstrips for preview, write Martha Huddleston, Director, Enrichment Teaching Materials, 246 Fifth Avenue, New York 1, N. Y.

**SCHOLASTIC MAGAZINES SPONSORS BUDGET BOOK SERVICE**—A new budget book service through which schools can obtain from a single source a variety of outstanding, low-cost paperbound books has been announced by Scholastic Magazines. Called Readers' Choice, the service offers over one hundred titles especially selected for school use and recreational reading for

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**KANSAS REPORTS STUDENT ACCIDENTS**—A report of accidents involving Kansas Students has been released by the Kansas State Board of Health. Covering the 1954-55 school year, the 35-page report analyzes details of all fatal and non-fatal accidents. With the aid of charts and graphs the report reviews types and locations of accidents, nature of injuries, and parts of bodies injured. Suggestions to schools for initiating a safety program are given together with guiding principles for safe behavior in many situations and activities.

The statistical report reveals that accidents in 1954-55 caused more than one-half of the total deaths, taking three times as many lives as the next three leading causes combined (cancer, congenital malformations, and poliomyelitis). Of all accidents to students 5-19 years old, 60 per cent involved motor vehicles. Sex distribution of fatal accidents among school children was 78 per cent male and 22 per cent female. The rate of fatal accidents according to age groups was five times greater for the 15-19 year-old students than that of the 5-9 year-old group and three times greater than that of the 10-14 year-old group. Of the 104 motor vehicle fatalities, exactly one-half of the victims were passengers, 41 per cent were drivers, and 9 per cent were pedestrians, the proportions varying with the age groups.

**THE AIR FORCE ACADEMY**—Approximately eighty-five per cent of the cadets are selected by the Air Force under a system whereby each U. S. Senator and Representative may nominate ten candidates. These candidates compete among themselves for the vacancies allotted to that state. Individuals interested in obtaining Congressional nominations for the class entering in July 1957 should write to their U. S. Senators or Representatives, stating their backgrounds and qualifications. The Air Force will accept Congressional nominations for this class from July 1, 1956, to January 31, 1957.

Other vacancies for the class entering July 1957 will be filled by the President, the Commissioners of the District of Columbia, and from the Reserve and Regular Components of the Army and Air Force.

Experience with the first class of cadets has shown that the most desirable educational preparation for applicants to the Air Force Academy should include the following: (1) At least three years of mathematics (two years of algebra and a year of plane geometry); (2) four years of English; (3)

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one year of American history. The remainder of an applicant's high-school preparation may be chosen from a wide variety of subjects, but should be those normally considered as college-preparatory courses.

Cadets are receiving individualized instruction which many educators have proclaimed as an ideal-type learning situation. Classes are composed of about twelve cadets each. Cadets are periodically regrouped according to their academic standing. Thus, instructors have the opportunity to work with cadets of similar academic standing. In such a setting, the teacher is able to scrutinize closely the problem of each cadet in relation to the progress of his class.

In order to disseminate information concerning eligibility requirements, the Air Force Academy has established a Candidate Advisory Program. This program, within the Office of the Director of Admissions, not only answers mail queries but also, within the limitations of time and availability of representatives, provides speakers for interested civic and educational groups. For further information concerning a speaker for your school or group, school officials should write to: Director of Admissions, USAF Academy, Denver 8, Colorado.

**A DESK FOR BILLIE**—Billie began life as the child of migrant parents. The first memories of her childhood were of dusty roads, an open car puffing through the rain and snow and hot sun, and of a tent pitched for sleeping and living in the open air. She had no real home. She felt that her family was not even real . . . in the way of people who lived in houses, and ate from tables with forks and knives. Slowly a question formed in Billie's mind. How do people become "real people?" What made the children in the towns different from her? Why didn't they have to sell baskets that their fathers made? The answer came to her through the words of a tramp who camped for a while in a hobo jungle where they stopped. He talked about school. This, he explained, made the difference between "real people" and her family. "Real children" went to school.

And schools were free in America! This is what Billie learned. This is why little Billie and her sister started to school. Of course she had to wear a ragged dress. But that made no difference. She could still have a desk all to herself wherever her family traveled. The teachers mattered too. There was one teacher who pulled Billie from her loneliness and gave her companionship by allowing her to tend the flowers in the classroom. Further along the dusty road, there was the teacher who recognized Billie's need for glasses and bought them for her, and the teacher in high school who loaned Billie a dress for her first party. And finally the American schools awarded Billie a diploma . . . recognition of her successful fight to become a "real person," educated and prepared to leave the migrant trails, the back roads, tents, make-shift camps, poor food . . . the endless life of nothingness.

Today, Mrs. Billie Davis is a successful editor, writer and lecturer. Her life story appeared in the *Saturday Evening Post* article, "I Was a Hobo Kid." And now the story of her fight for an education is presented by the National Education Association in this hour-long motion picture . . . dramatic illustration of the NEA Centennial Year Theme, *An Educated People Moves Freedom Forward*.

*A Desk for Billie* shows how America's schools open their doors to all children, regardless of wealth or poverty. This effective public relations film can be shown to the public as a background for panel discussions or valuable commentary about the school system in any community.



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All prints can be purchased from the NEA Division of Press and Radio Relations, Washington 6, D. C. at \$325 in color and \$110 in black and white. For Preview Prints, write first to your State Education Association. A limited number of Preview Prints is also available from NEA for prospective purchasers. Write to your State Education Association if you wish to borrow a print. If you are unable to borrow a print there, write to the NEA Division of Press and Radio Relations for information about the film library nearest you which has prints of the film you wish to show.

**A LOCAL ASSOCIATION TRIES DIRECT ADVERTISING**—These paid advertisements are appearing in the Redwood City (Cal.) Tribune. They were the idea of the *Redwood City Teachers' Association*. Why did the Association adopt this form of Public Relations? The teachers in the Association were not satisfied with "reporters words" about education and teachers. They felt that the teachers should communicate directly to the parents in Redwood.

And they wanted an inexpensive, yet mass media to carry their communication. The result? These ads . . . part of a weekly series . . . directed toward the consumers (parents).

As a result of the work and research, the Association discovered that this approach had been tried by other professions. The ads are designed to present the *feeling* that the teachers in Redwood are an important, stable, and powerful influence upon something the consumer (parent) owns . . . children.

The smaller ads came after a tryout run with the larger. To stretch the ad dollars, the small ad was adopted as the regular size. (\$6 per week). The Association buys space each week, and the series is rated a success. S. T. Levin, Redwood City Teachers Association, will give you more details. Box 624, Redwood City, California.

**HOW SHALL WE LIVE?**—A new approach to stimulating constructive discussions of everyday problems of teenagers is presented in *How Shall We Live?*, a provocative kit of instructional materials designed to get youngsters talking about living right at home, in school, and at play. The series is especially useful in the areas of guidance, home and family living, effective living, and social studies. The class levels are junior and senior high school.

Thirty-six topics for the school sessions are grouped under these headings: Leading and Following, Feeling About Others, Choosing, Giving and Taking Advice, and The Way We Look At Things. Situations typical of everyday life in any American community or school are pictured, and pertinent questions are raised in teenage ways. There is no attempt to preach or indoctrinate or even give answers—just problems to talk over. The students themselves develop the best possible solutions through the lively, open discussions that follow the presentation of each filmstrip. In one experimental discussion meeting, the *How Shall We Live?* talks prompted teenagers to drop their attitude that "nobody can help me with what worries me." As one teacher put it, "Ninety per cent of the material isn't on the screen at all—it is produced by the group itself during the give-and-take discussions that develop after the filmstrips provoke discussion." Guides are supplied to help the teacher keep the discussions directed upon the situations that are presented. The entire class-tested kit, with recordings, typical pictures and guides, is available through The Jam Handy Organization, 2821 East Grand Boulevard, Detroit 11, Michigan, and from all authorized Jam Handy dealers.

**HAMMOND'S MAP LIBRARY**—Nine large maps—measuring 50" x 33" each, nearly 12 square feet in area—are included in *Hammond's Map Library*.

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Intended for both practical home, school, and business use, as well as for decoration, the maps are boxed in a booklike map case (9½ x 12½) so that they are convenient to store or carry and are protected. *Hammond's Map Library* is available at \$9.95 each from the publisher, C. S. Hammond and Company, Maplewood, New Jersey. The maps include: the World, United States, Canada, North America, South America, Europe, Asia, Africa, Australia and the Pacific.

A bound index of thousands of place names is included. Locations are given by latitude and longitude so that the index may be used to find places on these maps as well as any other maps. Countries, cities, seas, lakes are easy to spot with this comprehensive index. The maps can be spread on a desk, tacked to a wall, or permanently mounted to a wall with ordinary wallpaper paste. Eight hand-toned pastel colors blend together to produce a modern, easy-to-read, decorative effect on the maps.

**MANPOWER AND EDUCATION**—The United States is now facing a manpower shortage, particularly in the fields in which exceptional talent and special training are at a premium. What will the demands be, how are they to be met, what is the significance of the manpower situation for education? These questions are the framework of *Manpower and Education* (1956. 128 pp. \$1.25), a recent statement of the Educational Policies Commission, NEA, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N. W., Washington 6, D. C.

In an economy such as the United States has developed, a premium is put upon trained manpower. In the years immediately ahead the nation is faced with numerical shortages in the productive age group as well as general shortages of well-trained persons of high ability. Education will make a major contribution to the solution of the manpower problem.

*Manpower and Education* brings together widely scattered information and relates it to educational needs and trends. Part I of the report reviews the factors contributing to the present manpower shortages, identifies the areas in which shortages will be acute, and appraises the nation's under-used resources of manpower which may, through increased education and training, relieve the problems in the shortage areas. Population changes, the demands of national security, and the advance of technology are among the factors identified as contributing to the manpower problem. Areas of acute shortage which are identified include scientific research, engineering, education, health services, semi-professional and technical occupations, and executive and supervisory levels in many occupations.

Part II of the report points to the need for consideration of democratic values in the determination of manpower policy. The right and responsibility of the individual to make his own career plans and decisions are inherent in an acceptable manpower policy. Individual values as well as ultimate national needs must be considered in reacting to manpower demands.

The implications for education at all levels are discussed in Part III. The recommendations apply to schools, colleges, and to agencies for adult education. The Commission points out the need for continued, general upgrading of the entire labor force. Policy recommendations are concerned with programs for general and vocational education, strengthening guidance and personnel services, increased efforts toward the education of the gifted, and with obtaining enough qualified teachers.

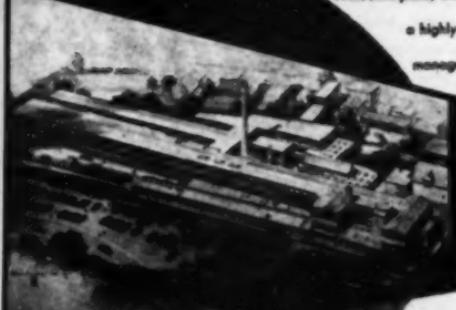
Among the Commission's major recommendations are the following: (1) *Continued, general upgrading of the entire labor force.* "The present high level

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of education on which current technological advance is founded must continue to rise. There must be more effective education, for more and more people." (2) *Education of the gifted.* "All young people, including the particularly gifted, should be educated to the highest level of their abilities. Gifted pupils should be identified early and given opportunities which will challenge their powers and develop their talents to the fullest. They should be motivated to be genuine achievers, imbued with a sense of responsibility for the wise and socially profitable employment of their abilities." (3) *Recruitment of qualified teachers.* "The teacher is a prime influence in producing increased manpower, particularly the kinds of manpower which are now in great demand. The recruitment of enough qualified teachers is a priority need. It is highly important to attract and retain capable teachers in the profession. Increased enrollment of college students, and greater career opportunity for women, for minority groups, and for older persons augment the supply of qualified teachers. Attention, however, must be given to such fundamental improvements in educational practice as will alleviate shortages and improve educational standards."

**SO YOU'RE GOING INTO BUSINESS**—This 20-page booklet suggests several important questions which should be considered before one decides to go into business regardless of the kind. The same basic factors must be considered in beginning virtually every type of business. This booklet doesn't give a foolproof formula for starting and operating a successful business but it does give sound advice and reference suggestions for more specific information. It discusses the chances for success, eleven character traits that rank high for success, the kind of business, location, capital necessary, and some suggestions for operating a business. This booklet while directed more to the adult, will also be valuable reading for study as a guidance aid in the school. A single copy may be secured free from the Chamber of Commerce of the United States, 1615 H Street, N. W., Washington 6, D. C. Additional copies may be purchased at 2 to 10 copies, 25 cents each; 11-50 copies, 15 cents each; and over 50 copies, 10 cents each.

**THE COMPARATIVE EDUCATION SOCIETY**—Courses in Comparative Education are being taught in teachers colleges and departments of education throughout the nation. So very often the instructors of these courses have scant contact with new findings and information. In an attempt to remedy this situation, and also to promote and encourage further studies in this area, the Comparative Education Society came into being earlier this year.

At the close of the Third Annual Conference on Comparative Education, April 27, 1956, those present voted in favor of the formation of a Comparative Education Society. The Society came into being the next day, when Dr. William W. Brickman, Chairman, Department of History of Education of New York University, was elected president; Dr. Robert B. Sutton, Assistant Professor of Education at Ohio State University, vice-president; and Dr. Gerald H. Read, Professor of Education at Kent State University, secretary-treasurer.

The Comparative Education Society will seek: (1) to promote and improve the teaching of comparative education in colleges and universities throughout the world; (2) to encourage scholarly research in comparative and international studies in education; (3) to interest professors in all areas of professional education and in other disciplines in the comparative and international dimension of their specialities; (4) to facilitate the publication of studies and up-to-date information on comparative education; (5) to encourage co-operation among specialists in comparative education throughout the

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world in joint studies, exchange of documents, and firsthand descriptions of education; (6) to co-operate whenever possible with such organizations as UNESCO, International Institute of Education, Pan-American Union, etc.; (7) to promote inter-visitation of educators and on-the-spot study of school systems for a better understanding of the theory and practice of education throughout the world; and (8) to co-operate with specialists in other disciplines, particularly the social sciences, in interpreting educational developments in a wider cultural context.

Membership is open to: (1) professors and students of comparative education and other foundations of education; (2) those persons who have responsibilities in the area of comparative education in organizations other than colleges and universities; and (3) those persons in professional education and other disciplines who are interested in comparative education. There will be meetings, at least annually, either independently or in co-operation with other professional education groups. The membership fee will be \$2 a year. Requests for additional information regarding membership, or questions, should be addressed to Dr. Gerald Read, Kent State University, Kent, Ohio.

**A COURSE ON THE FEDERAL INCOME TAX**—This year the Internal Revenue Service of the United States Treasury Department, Washington 25, D. C. has again prepared an income tax teaching program for high schools. It is divided into three parts, beginning with the very simplest of examples and moving gradually to examples of more complexity. Each part involves the same theoretical taxpayer. But as he grows older and takes on the responsibilities of marriage and family and advances in his work, his tax problems become more complex.

Part I is a simple example of income that could have been earned by a student. The first part is recommended for presentation to junior high school and first year high-school groups as an introduction to Federal income taxes. The second part, or Part II, should be taught only after the first part has been given. In this problem, the taxpayer has married and has become a full-time wage earner. His tax situation is slightly involved. This part is recommended for second or third year high-school students. In Part III the income tax situation of our taxpayer has become a little more complex. It is important that this part be taught after Parts I and II have been covered.

Also following the format established last year, the tax kits contain enlargements of Form 1040 and handbooks for the students. Illustrations, sample problems, and blank forms are included in the handbooks, and in the same sequence as in the teaching manual. This helps the students to follow instructions at their desks. For complete information about the course and about including it in the pupils' course of study, contact the nearest District Director of Internal Revenue.

**THE UNITED STATES MARINE CORPS**—The Marine Corps has a guidance kit available for school use. It consists of more than 15 pamphlets and books for both sexes which describe the various opportunities available to young men and women as a service career. This kit is available to schools upon request from your nearest Marine recruiting office or from the Commandant of the Marine Corps Headquarters, Washington 25, D. C. Some of the booklets included in the kit are: *Jobs for You* (female), *a Leader Among Men*, *The United States Marine Corps Reserve*, *Officers Training Platoon Leaders Class*, *Your Daughter's Role in Today's World*, *The Woman Officer*, *What the Marine Corps Offers You*, and *How To Respect and Display Our Flag*.

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**TEACHING AIDS FOR MENSTRUAL HYGIENE**—Personal Products Corporation of Milltown, New Jersey, makers of Modess sanitary napkins and other hygiene products, has prepared a kit and a filmstrip giving information on menstrual hygiene for the high-school girl of 14 to 18. Many schools now offering such units of instruction will find this information quite adaptable to class-room use. The filmstrip (67 full color frames with sound) *Confidence Because . . .* dramatizes the healthy attitude of a young girl who understands the physiological basis and purposes of menstruation. Pamphlets include a teacher's guide to the filmstrip, *Growing Up and Liking It, It's So Much Easier When You Know, Sally and Mary Wondered*, and *How Shall I Tell My Daughter?* Copies of these pamphlets in addition to other material may be secured in quantity lots for class-room use. Likewise, one filmstrip may also be secured free of charge. For complete information, write to the Director of Education, Personal Products Corporation, Milltown, New Jersey.

**SURVEY OF 1955 NORTH CAROLINA GRADUATES**—Less than a third of the 1955 graduates from the public high schools of North Carolina entered college in the fall of 1955, according to a study completed last July. This study covered 97.5 per cent of the graduates of schools for white students and 97.6 per cent of schools for Negroes.

The study showed that 32.8 per cent of the graduates of white schools and 28.0 per cent of graduates of Negro schools continued their formal education in junior and senior colleges. It also showed that 6.5 per cent of white graduates and 5.1 per cent of Negroes enrolled in business schools, trade schools and nurses' training. Six per cent of white graduates and 8.3 per cent of Negro graduates entered military service.

The study showed further that for 55.2 per cent of the white graduates and for 58.6 per cent of Negro graduates the high school represented the end of their formal education unless they decide later to take further educational work. It will be noted that in this discussion "military service" has been considered as a type of formal education when the percentage of "terminated education" is derived.

**JUVENILE DELINQUENCY**—Any general assumption that children and youth of this generation have "gone to the dogs" is a serious mistake according to evidence in the report of a study by the National Education Association (NEA). Admittedly, the report concludes, there are trouble spots and serious conditions in many communities and schools, but the picture for the nation as a whole is not nearly as bad as has been painted.

The study provides ample evidence that the great majority of boys and girls are not juvenile delinquents. Nearly two-thirds (64 per cent) of the public school teachers of the United States report that real trouble makers account for fewer than one in every 100 of their pupils; 92 per cent say behavior in their communities is not as bad as the impression given by press, radio and the movies; and 95 per cent describe the pupils they teach as either "exceptionally well behaved" or "reasonably well behaved" as a group.

The 60-page report, entitled *Teacher Opinion on Pupil Behavior*, was prepared by the NEA Research Division in co-operation with the NEA Commission for the Defense of Democracy Through Education. It is based on questionnaires filled out by 4,270 classroom teachers representative of rural and urban school systems, of every size and grade level, and of the various geographic regions of the United States. Replies were received from every one of the 48

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**Byzantine Empire**, the eastern part of the Roman Empire after the division in 395 A.D. It ceased to exist after the fall of its capital, Constantinople, in 1453.



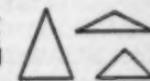
Byzantine Empire, 814 A.D.

**fall-out** (fôl'out'), *n.* the radioactive particles or dust that fall to the earth after an atomic explosion.

**iambic** (i'am/bik), *n.* 1. measure in poetry consisting of two syllables, an unaccented followed by an accented. 2. Usually, iambics, *pl.* verse of iambics. —*adj.* of or containing iambic measures. Much English poetry is iambic.

*Example:* "The sun | that brief | Decem | ber day  
Rose cheer | less o | ver hills | of gray."

**isosceles** (i'sos'ē lēz), *adj.* of a triangle, having two sides equal. [*< LL < Gk. isoskēles < isos equal + skelos leg*]



states. Copies of this survey report may be secured from the NEA, 1201-16th Street, N. W., Washington 6, D. C., at 50c each.

**\$1,000,000 SCIENCE EDUCATION PROGRAMS**—A nation-wide education program designed to encourage more of America's youth to follow a career in science has been announced by the Manufacturing Chemists' Association, Inc. According to General John E. Hull (USA ret.) MCA president, the program for a five-year period will cost an estimated \$1,000,000 and will include work at elementary, high school, and college levels. In commenting on the reasons for the new program General Hull said: "In June we published the results of a study which shows that the United States will be short 457,000 scientists and engineers by 1965. The chemical industry alone will be short 98,000 scientists and engineers. Unless efforts are taken to reduce this shortage, our economic and technological growth will slow down. We are undertaking our new science education program with the fervent hope that it will help to alleviate the shortage." The MC science education program has three stated objectives: (1) to inspire qualified students to follow science as a career; (2) to assist educators through the development of science-teaching aids and "curriculum enrichment" materials; and (3) to aid and encourage science teachers and education administrators toward the goal of increasing their numbers, their effectiveness, and their prestige.

During 1956-1957, emphasis will be placed on work with junior high schools. Pilot tests have been conducted in 50 school systems. Printed materials for both students and teachers plus visual aids, such as charts, will be offered science classes of 3,600 separate junior high schools during the year. Simultaneously, a pilot program will be conducted at the senior high school level using a demonstration manual, teaching chart, and film strip. On completion of the pilot study the program will be offered to the 11,700 high schools in the United States now teaching chemistry. This will cover an estimated 400,000 students. During 1957-1958, first contact will be made with students in the sixth grade of elementary school via a series of visual materials for principals, teachers, and students stressing the significance of science to daily life.

**NEW VINYL FABRIC FOR DARKENING CLASSROOMS**—A new flame-resistant, vinyl-coated fabric for draperies to darken window areas in school rooms and auditoriums, primarily for audio-visual work, has been developed by the Du Pont Company's Fabrics Division. The opaque drapery is color-patterned and textured on the inner side. Neutral beige faces the window. Opacity is supplied by an intermediate coating of black vinyl. Du Pont "Tontine" vinyl drapery material is of a weight and softness designed to drape gracefully over large expanses of glass and to draw into minimum space. Like regular drapery fabrics, it can be sewn and pleated, and can be hung on the same types of hardware.

**MUSIC EDUCATORS NATIONAL CONFERENCE LOCATES IN NEA HEADQUARTERS**—The Board of Directors of the Music Educators National Conference announces the removal of the headquarters office of the organization from Chicago, Illinois, to the Educational Center of the National Education Association in Washington, D. C. The administrative, business, and publications operations of the officers have been consolidated in the Educational Center. The MENC headquarters office serves not alone the MENC and MENC Divisions, but also the fifty federated state and territorial units, auxiliary organizations—National Interscholastic Music Activities Commission and Music Industry Council, and the associated organizations—College Band Directors Na-

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tional Association and National Association of College Wind and Percussion Instructors.

The MENC was founded in 1907 and became a department of the National Education Association in 1940. The *Music Educators Journal* was established in 1914. In 1930 a headquarters and publication office was set up in Chicago. This is now relinquished for quarters under the family roof in Washington. A liaison office was opened in the NEA Building in 1951 under the supervision of Miss Vanett Lawler, then Associate Executive Secretary and now Executive Secretary of MENC.

It is significant that the occupancy of quarters in the new Educational Center occurs on the eve of the Fiftieth Anniversary of the MENC (April 1957). The organization is carrying on a year-long Golden Anniversary Observance program, which began at its national biennial convention last April in St. Louis and will be climaxed at the six division (regional) conventions next spring, with a "coda" at the Centennial Anniversary convention of the NEA in Philadelphia next July.

**AMERICAN AND FOREIGN EDUCATIONAL EXCHANGES**—Data on almost 55,000 persons who traveled between the United States and foreign countries for educational purposes is contained in *Open Doors, 1955-56*, published by the Institute of International Education, 1 East 67th Street, New York City. The 48-page booklet reports on five surveys of educational exchangees made during the past year: foreign students, foreign physicians, foreign scholars, U. S. students, U. S. scholars. There were 43,309 foreign citizens in the United States for educational purposes in 1955-56: 36,494 students, 6,033 doctors, and 782 teachers and researchers. Criteria for foreign exchanges in all cases included foreign citizenship and permanent residence in a foreign country. The surveys report on 10,732 Americans abroad: 9,457 students abroad in 1954-55, and 1,275 U. S. faculty members abroad during 1955-56.

**"YOUTH WANTS TO KNOW" TV PROGRAM**—This summer in Portland, an agreement was signed between the NEA and Mr. Theodore Granik, producer of several outstanding television and radio programs. This agreement affiliates the NEA with the television program "Youth Wants To Know." This is the first time that the NEA has become affiliated on a regular basis with a weekly nation-wide network television program. NBC carried "Youth Wants To Know" over its network at 3:30 P.M. (E. D. T.), each Sunday.

Of course, the Division of Press and Radio Relations has co-operated in the past with many television programs, but this affiliation marks a different type of participation with the medium of television, for the NEA will be partners with the producers of this program. The Division will be responsible for providing the young people who appear on the panel, and will co-operate in other ways. From time to time, education newsmakers will appear on this program.

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SHE WANTED TO KNOW WHO

*but she stayed  
to learn how*

**S**uz looked at me with her bright, curious, 12-year-old eyes. "Can you please tell me where to find out about the first explorers at the

North Pole?" We went across the room, this eager youngster and I, and from the shelves I handed her the index volume of *The Book of Knowledge*.

Back at my desk, I watched her reading, and I smiled, knowing that I had started another child on a wonderful kind of treasure hunt.

In Volume 12 she found her answer, and I saw her stubby pencil making rapid notes. But I knew she

wouldn't stop there, for—as always with

*The Book of Knowledge*—one question was leading to another, and that one to the next.

She had found the who and whence it down, but now she wondered about the why and the how... the story of the compass, the geography of

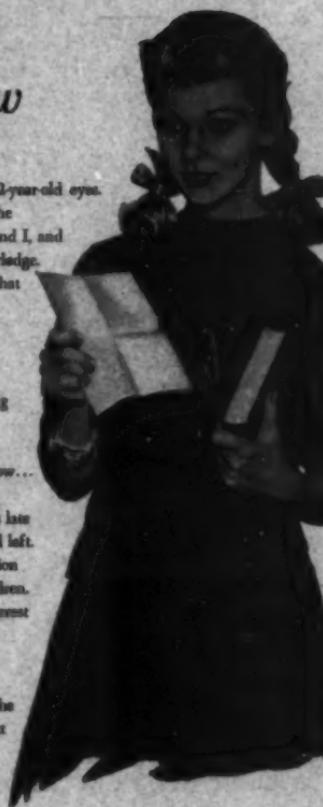
the Arctic, the culture of the Eskimos. It was late when she finally put the volumes back and left.

Day after day I observe this compelling fascination that *The Book of Knowledge* has for children.

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